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ABSTRACT

A symposium on new forms of higher education was organized at the European Center for Higher Education January 13-15, 1976. Participants were from thirteen countries. Included are: (1) a summary of discussions and working documents presented in English, French, and Russian; (2) texts of the contributions of participants presented in either English or French; and (3) a bibliography on the main topics. Related topics discussed are the new student population, period of study, teachers as specialists, vocational guidance, various new structures, tele-education, relationship with conventional institutions, and impact on social mobility. New forms of education in Sweden, Yugoslavia, the Federal Republic of Germany, the United Kingdom, Spain, Czechoslovakia, the Netherlands, Roumania, the German Democratic Republic, the USSR, Poland, and Italy are discussed. (Author/KE)

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ИССЛЕДОВАНИЯ И ДОКУМЕНТЫ ИЗДАННЫЕ ЕВРОПЕЙСКИМ ЦЕНТРОМ ПО ВЫСШЕМУ ОБРАЗОВАНИЮ

NEW FORMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN EUROPE
FORMES NOUVELLES D'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR EN EUROPE
НОВЫЕ ФОРМЫ ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ В ЕВРОПЕ

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CEPES

BUCAREST 1976

U N E S C O

NEW FORMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN EUROPE

FORMES NOUVELLES D'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR EN EUROPE

НОВЫЕ ФОРМЫ ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ В ЕВРОПЕ

Symposium organized by European Centre
for Higher Education
(Bucharest, 13 - 15 January 1976)

Colloque organisé par le Centre européen
pour l'enseignement supérieur
(Bucarest, 13 - 15 janvier 1976)

Симпозиум организованный Европейским
Центром по высшему образованию
(Бухарест, 13-15 января 1976 г.)

C E P E S
Bucarest, 1976

FOREWORD

A Symposium on new forms of higher education was organized at the European Centre for Higher Education, from 13 to 15 January 1976. The purpose of this Symposium was to exchange views and experiences on the proposed topic and to identify the most significant factors of interest to officials and administrators in charge of higher education in Europe. Participants from thirteen countries and several observers from international organizations dealing with such problems, attended the meeting.

In view of the interest of the debates, it was considered advisable to publish all the Symposium documents, in order to make its results widely known to those interested in the present development of third level education.

The present volume is divided in three parts. Part I includes a Summary of the discussions and the Working document presented by CEPES in order to facilitate an exchange of views during sessions.The annex to Part I also comprises the following documents: "General information note" and "Main topics for discussion ", which were given to the participants. All these documents are presented in the three working languages of the Centre: English, French and Russian. The list of participants appears in Annex III.

Part II includes the texts of the contributions presented by the participants during the meeting. These texts are reproduced in their original language (i.e. English or French). Only one contribution entitled "New forms of higher education in the USSR", has been translated from Russian into English, the original version being available at the Centre.

Finally, a Bibliography on the main topics of the Symposium, specially compiled for this meeting, appears in Part III.

The present volume has been edited by H. Zeiler.

The CEPES would like to express once again its sincere thanks to all the participants of the Symposium, for the quality of the papers they presented on that occasion and for their active participation in the discussions.

The success of this meeting has been most encouraging for the future activities of the Centre.

Th. Keller
Director

PREFACE

Un Colloque sur les nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur en Europe a été organisé, du 13 au 15 janvier 1976, au Centre européen pour l'enseignement supérieur. Le but de ce Colloque était de procéder à un échange de vues et d'expériences sur le thème proposé et d'en dégager les données les plus significatives pour les responsables des décisions et les administrateurs de l'enseignement supérieur en Europe. Des participants en provenance de treize pays, ainsi que plusieurs observateurs appartenant à des organisations internationales s'occupant de tels problèmes, assistaient à cette réunion.

Etant donné l'intérêt des travaux accomplis, il a semblé utile de réunir sous forme de monographie l'ensemble des documents se rapportant à cette rencontre, afin de pouvoir en diffuser largement les résultats auprès de ceux qui s'intéressent à l'évolution actuelle de l'enseignement du troisième degré.

Le présent volume comporte donc en Ie Partie, le Compte-rendu général des discussions, ainsi que le Document de travail présenté par le CEPES pour servir de base aux échanges de vues lors des séances. En annexe à cette Ie Partie, on trouvera en outre les documents intitulés : "Note générale d'information" et "Principaux thèmes de discussions", qui furent mis à la disposition des participants. Tous ces textes sont reproduits dans les trois langues de travail du Centre: anglais, français et russe. La liste des participants figure en Annexe III.

La IIe Partie comporte les textes des contributions fournies par les participants eux-mêmes lors du Colloque. Ces textes sont publiés dans leur langue originale: anglais ou français. Seul le document intitulé: "New forms of higher education in the USSR" a été traduit du russe en anglais, la version originale demeurant disponible au Centre.

On trouvera enfin, en IIIe Partie, une Bibliographie indicative sur les principaux thèmes du Colloque, qui fut également préparée pour cette réunion.

La mise en forme du présent volume a été assurée par H. Zeiler.

Le CEPES tient à remercier une fois encore tous ceux qui ont participé au Colloque pour la qualité des travaux qu'ils y ont présentés et pour leur contribution active lors des discussions. Le succès de cette rencontre, auquel ils ont largement contribué, constitue un encouragement pour les travaux ultérieurs du Centre.

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Th. Keller
Directeur

ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

От 13 по 15 января 1976 г., при Европейском Центре по высшему образованию был организован Симпозиум о новых формах высшего образования в Европе. Цель Симпозиума - обмен мнениями и опытом по предложенным темам и выявление наиболее значительных данных для администраторов и сотрудников, ответственных за высшее образование в Европе. На этом совещании присутствовали участники - представители 13-ти стран, а также несколько наблюдателей международных организациях, занимающимися подобными проблемами.

Учитывая большое значение дискуссии, состоящейся на совещании, мы считаем полезным опубликовать все материалы, имеющие отношение к этой встрече, в виде монографии, с целью широкого распространения полученных результатов для ознакомления всех тех, кто интересуется современным развитием высшего образования.

Настоящий выпуск состоит из трех частей. В первой Части даются общие итоги дискуссии, а также рабочий документ, составленный Центром, который является основой для дискуссии. К первой части приложены следующие документы : "Общая информация" и "Главные темы дискуссии", которые были представлены в распоряжение участников совещания. Все вышеуказанные тексты размножены на трех рабочих языках Центра : английском, русском и французском. Список участников дается в Приложении II.

Вторая Часть содержит тексты статьей, представленных участниками на Симпозиуме. Эти работы опубликованы на соответствующих языках оригинала, т.е. на английском или французском, за исключением статьи "Новые формы высшего образования в СССР", которая была переведена с русского на английский. Оригинал этой статьи хранится в архивах Центра.

Наконец, в третьей Части приводится Библиография главных тем дискуссии Симпозиума, которая также была подготовлена для этого совещания.

Оформление настоящего тома осуществлено Г-ной Х. Цайлер.

Центр еще раз выражает свою благодарность всем лицам, принявшим участие в работе Симпозиума, за высококачественные статьи, которые были ими представлены, а также за активное участие в дискуссиях. Успешное проведение этой встречи, послужит поощрением для последующей деятельности Центра.

Т. Келлер
Директор

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PART I : GENERAL REPORT

PARTIE I : RAPPORT GENERAL

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SUMMARY OF DISCUSSIONS

INTRODUCTION

1. In accordance with the recommendations of the second Conference of Ministers of Education of European Member States (Bucharest, 26 November-3 December 1973) and with the agreement of the Advisory Committee of the European Centre for Higher Education, a Symposium on new forms of higher education in Europe was held at the Centre, from 13 to 15 January 1976 in Bucharest. The purpose of the Symposium was to exchange views and experiences on the proposed topic and to identify the most significant factors which might be of interest to officials and administrators working in the field of higher education in Europe.

2. Twelve chief participants attended the meeting in their personal capacity at the invitation of the Director-General of Unesco. Seven observers from the following institutions: International Bureau of Education, International Health Organization, Council of Europe, International Association of Universities, International Federation of Catholic Universities, International Union of Students, and the Research Institute of Science Policy and Higher Education (Warsaw), were also present at the Symposium, together with a Unesco consultant. The Director-General of Unesco was represented by Mr. H. Foecke, Acting Deputy Assistant Director-General for Education.

3. At the opening session, the representative of the Director-General welcomed the participants, observers and guests. Speeches were also made by Mr. Ion Dima, Director of the Higher Education and Scientific Research Department of the Romanian Ministry of Education, and by Mr. Th. Keller, Director of CEPES. Mr. D. Tranca, Director at the Romanian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Mr. B.R. Devarajan, UNDP Representative in Bucharest, Mr. S.A. Chedid, Director of the United Nations Information Centre and Mr. P. Rath, Director of the United Nations Demographic Centre were also present at the opening session, together with representatives of the diplomatic corps and members of the press.

4. The Symposium then proceeded to the election of its Bureau. The following members were elected unanimously :

- Chairman :	Professor A. Casadevall, Rector of the Académie de Créteil (France)
- Vice-Chairman :	Professor V.N. Tchetverikov, Director of the Scientific Research Institute on Problems of Higher Education (USSR)
- Rapporteur :	Professor G. Bergendal, Director of the Malmö School of Education (Sweden)

5. On the basis of the Working paper three topics were chosen for discussion . Various participants reported on the experiences of their respective countries. In most cases the interventions were supported by written statements. This summary concentrates on questions of principle and excludes empirical data.

I. Definition of "new forms" of higher education and criteria for classification

6. On the basis of the definition suggested in the Working paper the following criteria were established:

(a) to enable new student population to benefit from higher education;

(b) to enable students to use study periods in other than traditional ways;

(c) the use of teaching staff from outside the university [x].

7. It was noted, however, that such terms as "new" and "traditional" raise difficulties, particularly when used in an analysis which covers the very varied situations in different European countries, e.g. what is considered new in one country may be more or less traditional in another. The problem of defining new forms largely depends not only on each specific national situation but is also related to historical and chronological criteria: when have the so called new forms been created or considered as such? During the discussions it was noted that in some countries radical reforms in the field of higher education are being carried out.

8. This confirms that an exchange of information between European countries concerning their experiences in the field of higher education could be particularly helpful, especially as far as innovations are concerned. It is important in this respect to study and collect information not only on successful experiences but also on obstacles to innovation and mistakes that have been made.

9. A flexible traditional system may, even in the absence of any institutional innovations, unintentionally allow the admission of new categories of students, but what was aimed at in the present discussions were positive measures to reach specific targets. It was pointed out that these new categories of students should be more clearly defined so that specific mesures may be taken for each of them.

10. In the course of a number of interventions two categories of students who could benefit from non traditional forms were discussed: people with a scolastic background who had not had the opportunity of entering higher education in their youth and those without this formal scolastic background. For instance, the question was raised whether existing systems of distant studies were used mainly by the former group of students or also by the latter.

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[x] cf. Working document ED-76/CONF.805/3, § 18

11. Additional criteria were suggested, especially in relation to the democratization of higher education itself, including participation in decision making and the new roles of students and teachers, to the economic conditions of students and to the relationships between higher education and enterprises, public services, etc.

12. Moreover, other supplementary criteria were suggested, such as new forms of teaching and learning, new forms which allow new syllabuses and new relationships with society during the course of studies, so that graduates can fulfil new societal needs. One of the participants underlined the possibility of linking education to the production process in the new types of institutions.

13. It was pointed out that the solution of the major problems faced by higher education does not necessarily lie in totally new forms of higher education. The development and improvement of traditional forms should also be considered important.

14. It was suggested, with regard to the extremely complex issue of innovation in higher education, that it would be necessary to adopt a system approach. Thus one must try to find new forms relating to changes in the input (new categories of students admitted to higher education), in the output (new societal needs to be fulfilled by higher education), and in the internal functioning of structures, contents, methods and means of instruction.

15. The importance of the environment of the higher education system was pointed out. As an example, the basic school system and the entrance requirements of higher education were mentioned.

16. It was suggested that one new form of higher education could be types of training which are not traditionally considered as higher education but which would be in the future. This would mean that the organization of higher education would fulfil societal needs other than those it has traditionally catered to and that these new types of training would benefit from gradually developing contacts with research.

17. No conclusion was adopted concerning the definition of new forms. When trying to make a summary of the discussions, it should firstly be noted that the three suggested criteria were accepted by all the participants as being relevant to developments in European higher education during the last few decades. These criteria imply a broadening of certain sociological and other limits of traditional forms. On the other hand, it is the functioning of higher education as a whole and its development with a view to serving new groups and new needs that matters. This indicates a systems approach in which the criteria of new forms should be closely linked to the input, output and internal functioning of higher education systems. Within the highly diversified field of European higher education it may be difficult to single out new forms as distinct from innovations within existing forms of higher education: a new need which is fulfilled by a new form in one country may be fulfilled by existing forms in another country. This may be an indication that comparative studies of new forms must deal rather extensively with the changes in the requirements of higher education.

II. Relationship between new forms of higher education and institutions of a conventional type.

18. Binary systems, in which new forms are developed in separate institutions, were discussed and compared with unitary or integrated systems, in which new and traditional forms are used in the same institution. Examples from various European countries were given. In some cases different forms could remain distinct although grouped, from an administrative point of view, in the same institution.

19. In both organizational models, new and traditional forms exercice a mutual influence. A "drift" towards academic status and standards was noted as a fairly common phenomenon. On the other hand, examples were given of traditional higher education which had very quickly acquired the advantages of competing new forms.

20. The question of new forms raises the problem of the autonomy of higher education institutions. Integrated solutions may be envisaged in the context of the increasing influence of outside groups on university management. Universities with a high degree of autonomy cannot be forced to develop new forms. In such cases the solution of separate institutions is the only possible one. If there is no consensus among institutions on the development of new forms, a strong central power may be necessary to ensure their development.

21. Some of the new forms may require specific restrictions in the autonomy of the universities. This may be the case if universities of the same country are to co-operate in the implementation of correspondence courses which require uniform curricula.

22. It was suggested that higher education could only be the task of higher education institutions. This implies the idea that institutions of higher education should prepare for scientific work or for work based on scientific principles. Wider definitions were also suggested so that higher education could meet broader individual and social needs. In all cases it was assumed that higher education is a qualified training or education with some relationship to research.

23. A fundamental problem is concerned with differences in prestige and quality between new and traditional forms. It was indicated, as an example, that in some cases graduates of correspondence courses were not considered by employers as equivalent to graduates of traditional courses. Other examples were given to show that teachers of part-time students had to be particularly qualified since these students were the most demanding ones. All the participants agreed that mobility between the various forms of higher education is essential. It should, for example, be possible to move between distance study and reguler courses.

24. Questions of prestige and status have, in some cases, influenced trade unions to make a stand against the introduction of new forms of higher education. The idea was that the new categories of students should not be served by institutions of a low status.

25. Some participants expressed pessimistic views concerning the development of new forms of higher education in their countries. New forms are alien to bureaucratic systems which want standardization and uniformity. Insufficient priority seems to be given to educational goals such as the personal development of individuals and the distribution of educational resources to new categories of society.

26. The question was also raised of whether research centres outside universities in Europe could also be useful for the development of new forms of higher education. According to some participants such centres may be used for post-graduate studies. Others were more doubtful.

27. As a summary of the discussions on this topic it was noted that the relationships between new forms and institutions of a conventional type must be considered within their national context. It was suggested that the typology of relationships between conventional and new forms should be studied by the Centre, including problems of different kinds which arise from these relationships and the possibility of common or co-operative solutions.

III. Impact of new forms of higher education on social mobility.

28. It was agreed that it is extremely difficult to evaluate the impact of new forms of higher education on social mobility. Social mobility depends on many factors and it is difficult to distinguish between the effects of particular forms of higher education, of higher education as a whole and of education as such. Moreover, most European countries have, during the last few decades, experienced a rapid economic and social development which has far reaching consequences as regards mobility.

29. Some participants questioned the concept of mobility and others questioned whether mobility should be a main goal of education and of educational planning.

30. Higher education is mainly considered in connection with upward mobility. It was noted that there exists a social promotion independent of universities, e.g. within entreprises. The role of higher education in this respect must be analysed. It was noted that, at least in Western European countries, educational growth had not in itself improved to a great extent equality of educational opportunity. It was also pointed out that, in most modern societies, there is a trend towards meritocracy and that selection tends to reinforce social structures.

31. It was pointed out that discrepancies between the output of higher education graduates and the needs of the economy indirectly result in downward mobility in the following sense: higher education graduates have to apply for jobs for which normally people with other qualifications would have been employed, in which case the latter might be "driven out".

32. Many participants favoured a systems approach to the study of mobility in connection with education. Mobility must be studied with regard to input, to the educational system and to output. The importance, in this respect, of primary and secondary education was underlined as well as the

impact of the structure and organization of careers: in some sectors, e.g. medical care, there is almost no internal promotion at all.

33. It was suggested that the systems approach would also apply to the analysis of a particular point in a career. Thus the employment of a graduate depends on the training he has been given, on his employers and on the individual and his personal situation. It was noted that the relationship between the university and the enterprise is different in socialist countries, where both are state institutions, as compares with other European countries.

34. Although the discussion made it clear that the full impact of new forms of higher education on social mobility can only be studied within a much wider context and that it cannot be assessed as an isolated phenomenon, some observations were made which raised very relevant problems.

35. Do new forms of higher education, which were introduced to help disadvantaged categories, tend to be used by traditional categories of students who have failed within the traditional system? If so, this does not help the categories originally aimed at.

36. An important problem is that of the part-time studies of women. The burden of regular work, studies and the family will, in many cases, be too heavy. This indicates the need for special solutions for women.

CONCLUSION

37. The participants felt that the theme of the Symposium was well chosen and corresponded to the present needs of European Member States. The problems raised during the discussions should be followed up by further studies and some important topics should be discussed more thoroughly in similar symposia organized by the Centre. The participants congratulated the Centre on the preparation and organization of this Symposium.

COMPTE RENDU DES DISCUSSIONS

INTRODUCTION

1. Conformément aux recommandations de la Deuxième Conférence des ministres de l'éducation des Etats membres de l'Unesco (Bucarest, 26 novembre-3 décembre 1973) et sur avis favorable du Comité consultatif du Centre Européen pour l'enseignement supérieur, un Colloque sur les nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur en Europe s'est déroulé au CEPES, à Bucarest, du 13 au 15 janvier 1976. Le but du Colloque était de procéder à un échange de vues et d'expériences sur le thème proposé et d'en dégager les données les plus significatives susceptibles d'intéresser les responsables des décisions et les administrateurs de l'enseignement supérieur en Europe.

2. Douze participants principaux, siégeant à titre personnel et sur invitation du Directeur général de l'Unesco, ainsi que sept observateurs représentant respectivement le Bureau international de l'éducation, l'Organisation mondiale de la santé, le Conseil de l'Europe, l'Association internationale des universités, la Fédération internationale des universités catholiques, l'Union internationale des étudiants et l'Institut de recherche sur la politique scientifique et l'enseignement supérieur (Varsovie), ont assisté à la réunion. Par ailleurs, un consultant de l'Unesco participait également au Colloque. Le Directeur général de l'Organisation était représenté par Monsieur H. Foecke, Adjoint au Sous-Directeur général pour l'éducation p.i.

3. Lors de la séance d'ouverture, le Représentant du Directeur général souhaita la bienvenue aux participants, aux observateurs et aux autres invités. Des allocutions furent également prononcées par Monsieur Ion Dima, Directeur de l'Enseignement supérieur et de la recherche scientifique au Ministère de l'éducation et de l'enseignement de Roumanie, et par Monsieur Th. Keller, Directeur du CEPES. D'autres personnalités assistaient à cette séance d'ouverture, parmi lesquelles : Monsieur D. Tranca, Directeur au Ministère des affaires étrangères de Roumanie, Monsieur B.R. Devarajan, Représentant du PNUD à Bucarest, Monsieur S.A. Chedid, Directeur du Centre d'information des Nations-Unies et Monsieur F. Rath, Directeur du Centre démographique des Nations-Unies. Des représentants du corps diplomatique, accrédités à Bucarest, ainsi que des membres de la presse, étaient également présents.

4. La réunion a ensuite procédé à l'élection de son Bureau. Les membres suivants ont été élus à l'unanimité :

- Président :	Professeur A. Casadevall, Recteur de l'Académie de Créteil (France)
- Vice-Président :	Professeur V.N. Tchetverikov, Directeur de l'Institut de recherche scientifique sur l'enseignement supérieur (URSS)
- Rapporteur :	Professeur G. Bergendal, Directeur de l'Ecole normale supérieure de Malmö (Suède)

5. Sur la base du Document de travail, trois thèmes ont été choisis pour la discussion. Plusieurs participants ont fourni des informations sur les expériences réalisées dans leurs pays respectifs. Dans la plupart des cas, les interventions des participants se sont référées à des textes écrits. Le présent compte-rendu met l'accent sur des questions de principe, à l'exclusion de données de type empirique.

I. Définition des "nouvelles formes" d'enseignement supérieur et critères de classification.

6. Conformément à la définition suggérée dans le Document de travail, les critères suivants ont été relevés :

(a) permettre à une clientèle estudiantine nouvelle de bénéficier de l'enseignement supérieur;

(b) permettre d'utiliser le temps d'étude autrement que selon les modes traditionnels;

(c) faire appel à un personnel enseignant extérieur à l'université [x].

7. Il a été souligné cependant que les termes "nouveau" et "traditionnel" posaient certains problèmes, particulièrement lorsqu'ils étaient utilisés dans le cadre d'une analyse couvrant des situations très différentes dans les divers pays européens; ce qui est considéré comme nouveau dans un certain pays, peut être considéré comme plus ou moins traditionnel dans un autre. Le problème de la définition des nouvelles formes dépend en grande partie, non seulement des situations nationales particulières, mais aussi de certains critères d'ordre historique et chronologique: quand les nouvelles formes ont-elles été créées ou considérées comme telles? Au cours des discussions, on a fait remarquer que dans quelques pays, des réformes radicales dans le domaine de l'enseignement supérieur étaient actuellement en cours.

8. Ceci confirme le fait qu'un échange d'informations entre les pays d'Europe, sur leurs expériences dans le domaine de l'enseignement supérieur, pourrait être utile, particulièrement en ce qui concerne la question des innovations. Il semble important à cet égard, d'étudier et de recueillir des informations, non seulement sur des expériences réussies, mais également sur les obstacles qui s'opposent à l'innovation et sur les erreurs qui ont pu être commises.

9. Même en l'absence de toute innovation institutionnelle, un système traditionnel relativement flexible peut, sans intention délibérée, ouvrir l'accès à de nouvelles catégories d'étudiants; cependant, le but de la discussion était de définir des mesures positives visant à atteindre des objectifs spécifiques. Il a été souligné que ces nouveaux groupes d'étudiants devraient être plus clairement définis afin que de telles mesures puissent être prises pour chacune de ces catégories.

10. Dans le cadre d'un certain nombre d'interventions, la discussion a porté sur deux catégories d'étudiants pouvant bénéficier des formes non traditionnelles: les individus ayant eu une formation scolaire dans leur

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[x] cf. Document de travail ED-76/CONF.805/3, § 18

jeunesse, mais n'ayant pas accédé à l'enseignement supérieur, et ceux ne possédant pas cette formation scolaire. La question a été notamment posée de savoir si les systèmes actuels d'enseignement à distance étaient utilisés principalement par le premier ou le second groupe.

11. D'autres critères de définition ont été suggérés, principalement liés à la démocratisation de l'enseignement supérieur lui-même, incluant la participation aux décisions et les nouveaux rôles des étudiants et des enseignants; à la condition économique des étudiants; et aux relations entre l'enseignement supérieur et les entreprises, les services publics, etc.

12. D'autres critères ont été également proposés, tels que les nouvelles méthodes d'enseignement et d'étude; les nouvelles formes permettant l'adoption de nouveaux programmes; les relations nouvelles avec la société au cours des études, permettant aux diplômés de répondre à des besoins sociaux nouveaux. Un participant a souligné la possibilité d'établir des liens entre l'éducation et les processus de production, dans le cadre des nouvelles institutions.

13. Il a été noté que la solution des principaux problèmes qui se posent à l'enseignement supérieur n'était pas nécessairement liée à des formes d'enseignement entièrement nouvelles. Le développement et l'amélioration des formes traditionnelles devraient être également considérés comme importants.

14. En raison de l'extrême complexité du problème des nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur, il a été suggéré d'adopter une approche de système. Il faudrait donc tenter d'identifier les nouvelles formes impliquant des changements dans les conditions d'accès (nouvelles catégories d'étudiants admis à l'enseignement supérieur), dans le rendement ou "output" (de nouveaux besoins sociaux devant être satisfaits par l'enseignement supérieur) et dans le fonctionnement interne des structures, des contenus, des méthodes et des moyens d'enseignement.

15. L'importance du contexte général de l'enseignement supérieur a été également soulignée; on s'est référé notamment au système scolaire et aux conditions d'accès à l'enseignement supérieur.

16. On a suggéré de prendre également en considération parmi les nouvelles formes, certains types de formations qui n'entrent pas traditionnellement dans la catégorie de l'enseignement supérieur mais qui pourraient y entrer dans un proche avenir. Ceci signifierait que l'organisation de l'enseignement supérieur répondrait à d'autres besoins sociaux que ceux dont il s'est préoccupé jusqu'à présent et que ces nouveaux types de formations tireraient profit de contacts accrus avec le domaine de la recherche.

17. Aucune conclusion n'a été adoptée concernant la définition des nouvelles formes. En tentant de résumer l'ensemble des discussions, on peut affirmer que les trois critères proposés ont été acceptés par tous les participants comme étant particulièrement significatifs en ce qui concerne l'évolution de l'enseignement supérieur au cours des dernières décennies. Ces critères impliquent l'élargissement de certaines limites sociologiques et autres, propres aux formes traditionnelles. Par ailleurs, c'est le fonctionnement même de l'enseignement supérieur dans son ensemble et son évolution en vue de satisfaire de nouveaux groupes sociaux et de répondre à

de nouveaux besoins, qui semblent importants. Ceci signifie une approche de système selon laquelle les critères de définition des nouvelles formes devraient être étroitement liés à l' "input", à l' "output" et au fonctionnement interne des systèmes d'enseignement supérieur. A l'intérieur du domaine très diversifié de l'enseignement supérieur en Europe, il peut s'avérer difficile de distinguer les nouvelles formes proprement dites, des innovations réalisées au sein de l'enseignement supérieur traditionnel; un nouveau besoin auquel répond une nouvelle forme dans un pays déterminé, peut être satisfait par des formes déjà existantes dans un autre pays. Ceci pourrait signifier que des études comparatives sur les nouvelles formes devraient traiter, de manière approfondie, des changements intervenus dans les tâches assignées à l'enseignement supérieur.

II. Relations entre les nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur et les institutions de type conventionnel.

18. La discussion a porté sur les systèmes de type "binaire", dans lesquels de nouvelles formes se développent dans des institutions séparées; ces systèmes ont été comparés aux systèmes unitaires ou "intégrés", dans lesquels les formes nouvelles et les formes traditionnelles coexistent au sein d'une même institution. Des exemples ont été cités dans divers pays européens. Dans certains cas, des formes différentes peuvent demeurer distinctes même si elles relèvent administrativement d'une même institution.

19. Dans les deux types d'organisation, les formes nouvelles et traditionnelles exercent entre elles une influence réciproque. Un "courant" visant à l'acquisition d'un statut académique semble un phénomène relativement fréquent. Par ailleurs, on a cité des exemples d'enseignements supérieurs traditionnels ayant rapidement adopté les avantages offerts par des formes concurrentes nouvelles.

20. La question des nouvelles formes soulève le problème de l'autonomie des institutions d'enseignement supérieur. Des solutions intégrées peuvent être relevées dans le contexte d'une influence croissante de groupes de pression extérieurs sur l'administration des universités. Les universités jouissant d'un haut degré d'autonomie ne peuvent se voir forcées de développer de nouvelles formes. Dans de tels cas, la création d'institutions séparées est la seule solution possible. S'il n'existe pas d'accord entre les différentes institutions sur la question du développement de nouvelles formes, un pouvoir central fort peut s'avérer nécessaire afin d'en assurer la réalisation.

21. Certaines formes nouvelles peuvent exiger l'imposition de restrictions à l'autonomie des universités. Tel peut être le cas si les universités d'un même pays sont appelées à coopérer pour la création de cours par correspondance, exigeant un programme d'études uniforme.

22. On a mentionné le fait que l'enseignement supérieur ne pouvait relever que des institutions mêmes d'enseignement supérieur. Ceci implique l'idée que ces institutions doivent préparer leurs étudiants à un travail scientifique ou à une forme de travail basée sur des principes scientifiques. Des définitions plus amples ont été également suggérées, afin de satisfaire

à de plus larges besoins individuels et sociaux. On a estimé dans tous les cas, que l'enseignement supérieur était une forme d'éducation ayant des liens avec la recherche.

23. Un problème fondamental concerne les différences de prestige ou de qualité entre les formes nouvelles et traditionnelles. On a signalé, à titre d'exemple, que dans certains cas les diplômés des cours par correspondance n'étaient pas considérés par les employeurs comme se situant au même niveau que les diplômés de cours traditionnels. D'autres exemples ont été cités mentionnant le fait que les professeurs chargés d'étudiants à temps partiel devraient être particulièrement qualifiés étant données les exigences de ces étudiants. Tous les participants ont unanimement affirmé que la mobilité entre les différentes formes d'enseignement supérieur était essentielle. Il devrait notamment être possible de passer d'un type de cours par correspondance, à un enseignement à plein temps.

24. Certaines questions de prestige et de statut social ont parfois amené les syndicats à s'opposer à l'introduction de nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur. Selon leurs vues, on ne peut offrir à de nouvelles catégories d'étudiants, des institutions ne jouissant que d'un statut inférieur.

25. Quelques participants ont exprimé un certain pessimisme en ce qui concerne le développement de nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur dans leur pays. Les nouvelles formes sont étrangères aux administrations bureaucratiques qui veulent l'uniformité et la standardisation. Une priorité suffisante ne semble pas être accordée à des objectifs éducationnels tels que l'épanouissement personnel des individus et la distribution des ressources d'éducation à de nouveaux groupes dans la société.

26. La question a été également posée de savoir si des centres de recherches situés en dehors des universités en Europe pourraient également contribuer au développement de nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur. Selon l'avis de certains participants, de tels centres pourraient être utilisés pour des études post-universitaires. D'autres participants ont cependant exprimé leurs doutes à ce sujet.

27. En conclusion des discussions sur ce deuxième point, il a été souligné que les relations entre formes nouvelles et traditionnelles devraient être considérées dans leur contexte national. On a suggéré que la typologie des relations entre ces formes nouvelles et les formes conventionnelles soit étudiée par le Centre en tenant compte des différents problèmes soulevés par ces relations, ainsi que la possibilité d'adopter des solutions en coopération ou en commun.

III. Impact des formes nouvelles d'enseignement supérieur sur la mobibité sociale.

28. Les participants ont été unanimes pour affirmer qu'il était extrêmement malaisé d'évaluer l'impact des nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur sur la mobilité sociale. La mobilité sociale est influencée par de nombreux facteurs et il semble difficile de distinguer entre les effets exercés respectivement par certaines formes particulières d'enseignement supérieur, par l'enseignement supérieur dans son ensemble ou par l'éducation comme telle. Par ailleurs, la plupart des pays européens ont connu,

au cours des dernières décennies, un développement social et économique particulièrement rapide, ayant eu des répercussions importantes en ce qui concerne la mobilité sociale.

29. Certains participants ont exprimé des doutes quant au concept même de mobilité et d'autres ont posé la question de savoir si la mobilité devait constituer un objectif principal de l'éducation et de la planification de l'enseignement.

30. L'enseignement supérieur est principalement considéré en relation avec une mobilité ascendante. On a fait remarquer qu'il existe, à cet égard, une forme de promotion sociale indépendante des universités, notamment au sein des entreprises. Le rôle de l'enseignement supérieur, à ce point de vue devrait être analysé. On a noté également que dans les pays d'Europe occidentale tout au moins, la croissance dans le domaine de l'éducation n'a pas amélioré en elle-même, de manière significative, l'égalité des chances. On a constaté, en outre, que dans la plupart des sociétés modernes, il existe un courant vers une forme de "méritocratie" et que ce type de sélection tend à renforcer les structures sociales.

31. Il a été souligné que les divergences entre le nombre de diplômés de l'enseignement supérieur et les besoins de l'économie entraînent indirectement une mobilité vers le bas, pour la raison suivante: les diplômés de l'enseignement supérieur sont amenés à solliciter des emplois normalement remplis par des individus ayant des qualifications différentes; ces derniers risquent donc de se trouver supplantés.

32. Plusieurs participants se sont montrés partisans d'une approche de système en ce qui concerne l'étude de la mobilité liée à l'éducation. La mobilité doit être analysée en relation avec l' "input", l' "output" et le système éducationnel lui-même. A cet égard, l'importance de l'enseignement primaire et secondaire a été soulignée, ainsi que l'impact de la structure et de l'organisation des carrières professionnelles; dans certains secteurs, comme celui des sciences médicales, il n'existe pratiquement aucune promotion interne.

33. On a suggéré que l'approche de système soit également appliquée à l'analyse d'une étape de carrière déterminée. L'emploi d'un diplômé dépend de la formation qu'il a reçue, de ses employeurs et de la situation personnelle de l'individu. On a fait remarquer que la relation entre l'université et l'entreprise se présentait de manière différente selon qu'il s'agissait des pays socialistes, dans lesquels ces deux institutions relèvent de l'Etat, ou des autres pays européens.

34. La discussion a fait clairement apparaître que l'impact des nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur sur la mobilité sociale ne pouvait être étudié que dans un contexte beaucoup plus vaste et ne pouvait être considéré comme un phénomène isolé. Cependant certains problèmes importants ont été relevés.

35. Les nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur, créées en vue d'aider certains groupes sociaux désavantagés, ne tendent-elles pas à être utilisées par les catégories traditionnelles d'étudiants ayant échoué dans le cadre du système d'enseignement conventionnel? Si tel est le cas, ce phénomène ne contribue évidemment pas à aider les groupes initialement visés.

36. Le problème de la participation des femmes aux études à temps partiel semble également important. Le poids des études venant s'ajouter au travail professionnel et aux charges familiales peut s'avérer souvent trop lourd. Ceci semble indiquer que des solutions particulières doivent être trouvées pour les femmes.

CONCLUSION

37. Les participants ont estimé que le sujet du Colloque avait été bien choisi et correspondait aux besoins des Etats membres européens. Les problèmes soulevés lors des discussions devraient faire l'objet d'études ultérieures et certains aspects particulièrement importants devraient être analysés en profondeur à l'occasion d'autres colloques organisés par le Centre. Les participants ont également félicité le CEPES pour la préparation et l'organisation de cette réunion.

ИТОГИ ДИСКУССИИ

ВВЕДЕНИЕ

1. В соответствии с рекомендациями второй конференции министров образования европейских государств-членов ЮНЕСКО (Бухарест, 26 ноября - 3 декабря 1973 г.) и с одобрения Консультативного Комитета Европейского Центра по высшему образованию, с 13 по 15 января 1976 г., в Европейском Центре в Бухаресте состоялся Симпозиум о новых формах высшего образования в Европе. Цель Симпозиума - обмен мнениями и опытом по предложенным темам и выявление наиболее существенных данных, представляющих интерес для администраторов и сотрудников, ответственных за высшее образование в Европе.

2. По приглашению Генерального Директора ЮНЕСКО, на совещании присутствовало в личном качестве двенадцать участников, а также семь наблюдателей соответственно представляющих Международное Бюро Образования, Международную Организацию Здравоохранения, Европейский Совет, Международное Объединение Университетов, Международную Федерацию Католических Университетов, Международное Объединение Студентов и Исследовательский Институт научной политики и высшего образования (Варшава). В работе совещания принял участие также консультант ЮНЕСКО. Генеральный Директор ЮНЕСКО был представлен г-ном Х. Фоке, исполняющий обязанности заместителя заместителя Генерального Директора по вопросам образования.

3. На открытии совещания, представитель Генерального Директора приветствовал участников, наблюдателей и других приглашенных. Выступили также г-н Ион Дима, Директор высшего образования и научных исследований в Министерстве Просвещения и Образования Румынии и г-н Т. Келлер-Директор Центра. На открытии совещания также присутствовали г-н Д. Транка-Директор, Министерство Иностранных Дел Румынии, г-н В.Р. Девараханд - Представитель Программы Объединенных Наций по развитию, г-н С.А. Шейд - Директор Информационного Центра Объединенных Наций и г-н Ф. Рат - Директор Демографического Центра Объединенных Наций. Присутствовали также представители дипломатического корпуса, аккредитованные в Бухаресте и представители прессы.

4. Затем совещание приступило к избранию президиума. Единогласно были избраны следующие члены :

- Председатель	Проф. А. Казалеваль, Ректор Академии в Крейтель (Франция)
- Заместитель председателя	Проф. В.Н. Четвериков, Директор научно-исследовательского Института по высшему образованию (СССР)
- Докладчик	Проф. Г. Бергендаль, Директор высшей педагогической школы в Мальмо (Швеция)

5. На основании рабочего документа, для обсуждения, были выбраны три темы. Многие участники информировали об опытах, которые проводятся в их странах. В большинстве случаев выступления участников опирались на представленный ими письменный текст. В настоящем документе главное внимание уделяется принципиальным вопросам и исключаются данные эмпирического характера.

I. Определение "новых форм" высшего образования и критерии для их классификации

6. Согласно определению, предложенному в Рабочем документе, установлены следующие критерии :

(а) дать возможность новой студенческой клиентуре воспользоваться высшим образованием;

(б) дать возможность студентам воспользовать время обучения иным способом чем при традиционных формах обучения; x/

(в) использовать специалистов из вне-университетских кругов.

7. Было отмечено однако, что термины "новые" и "традиционные" вызывают некоторые затруднения, в частности в тех случаях, когда они применяются при анализе совершенно различных условий, присущих различным Европейским странам; то, что рассматривается как "новое" в одних странах, может быть принято как более или менее традиционное в других. Проблема определения новых форм в основном зависит не только от каждой специфической национальной ситуации, но имеет отношение также к историческим и хронологическим критериям, т.е. когда так называемые новые формы были созданы или были рассмотрены как таковые. Во время дискуссий было отмечено, что в некоторых странах осуществляются основные реформы высшего образования.

8. Это подтверждает, что обмен информацией между Европейскими странами в отношении их опыта, приобретенного в области высшего образования, может принести исключительную пользу, особенно в области нововведений. Большое значение в этом отношении представляет изучение и сбор информации не только об удачных опытах, но также и о препятствиях, встречаемых при нововведениях и о сделанных ошибках.

9. Гибкая традиционная система может, даже в отсутствие институционных нововведений, непреднамеренно открыть доступ к образованию новым студенческим категориям; однако, целью настоящего обсуждения является определение положительных мероприятий для достижения намеченной цели. Было также подчеркнуто, что следует ясное определить, что представляют собой эти новые студенческие категории, для того чтобы можно было предпринять соответствующие меры для каждой из них в отдельности.

10. В ходе отдельных выступлений был затронут вопрос о двух категориях студентов, которые могут пользоваться нетрадиционными формами образования: лиц, имеющих образовательный ценз, которые не имели возможности получить высшее образование в молодости и лиц не имеющих формального образовательного ценза. Например, был поставлен вопрос, является ли существующая система обучения на расстоянии для первой категории студентов или она предназначена также для второй.

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x/ Ссылка на рабочий документ ED-76/CONF.805/3, § 18

11. Были предложены также и другие критерии для определения новых форм, особенно в связи с демократизацией высшего образования как такового, включая участие в принятии решений и новую роль как студентов, так и преподавателей, в связи с экономическим положением студентов, отношением между ВУЗ-ами и предприятиями, государственными учреждениями и т.д.

12. Более того, были предложены другие дополнительные критерии как, например, новые формы и методы обучения, новые формы, которые позволяют вводить новые программы, новые взаимоотношения с обществом в период курса обучения с тем, чтобы выпускники могли более полно удовлетворять нужды общества. Один из участников подчеркнул важность связи обучения с процессом производства в новых типах высших учебных заведений.

13. Было отмечено, что решение главных проблем, стоящих перед высшим образованием, не связано в обязательном порядке с совершенно новыми формами образования. Развитие и улучшение традиционных форм должно расматриваться также как важная задача.

14. Учитывая чрезвычайно комплексный характер проблемы нововведений в области высшего образования, сделано предложение применить метод системного подхода. Так, следует попытаться определить новые формы с точки зрения : новых условий приема (новые категории студентов, для которых высшее образование стало доступным), выпуск специалистов (новые социальные требования, которым должно отвечать высшее образование) и, наконец, с точки зрения внутренней структуры, содержания методов и средств обучения.

15. Было также подчеркнуто значение других проблем, которые имеют отношение к высшему образованию. В качестве примера были приведены школьная система образования и условия приема в высшее учебные заведения.

16. Сделано предложение среди новых форм учесть также некоторые типы учебных заведений, которые в настоящее время с традиционной точки зрения не относятся к категории ВУЗ-ов, не могут быть отнесены к ним в ближайшем будущем. Таким образом, организация высшего образования будет соответствовать другим социальным требованиям, чем те которыми оно занималось до настоящего времени, а эти учебные заведения нового типа извлекут пользу в результате более тесного контакта в области научно-исследовательских работ.

17. В отношении определения новых форм не были сделаны никакие выводы. В результате краткого обзора проведенной дискуссии, можно утверждать, что все три критерии по определению традиционных форм были приняты всеми участниками Симпозиума, учитывая их особое значение в отношении развития высшего образования в Европе за последния десятилетия. Эти критерии связаны с расширением определенных социологических и других ограничений традиционных форм. Кроме того, представляет значение способ функционирования высшего образования в общей сложности и его развитие в виде удовлетворения новых студенческих категорий и соответствия новым требованиям. Это означает "системный подход" согласно которому критерии для определения новых форм должны быть тесно связаны с приемом студентов и выпуском и, в дополнение, с внутренним функционированием систем высшего образования. В пределах весьма разнообразной области деятельности высшего образования в Европе, возможно, что будет трудно отличить сообственно новые формы от нововведений в области существующих форм высшего образования; новые требования,

которым отвечает новая форма в какой либо из стран, могут быть удовлетворены уже существующими в каких либо других странах. Это может означать, что сравнительное изучение новых форм следует проводить достаточно углубленно, а именно с точки зрения изменений в требованиях, предъявляемых к высшему образованию.

II. Взаимоотношения между новыми формами высшего образования и ВУЗ-ами традиционного типа

18. Были обсуждены бинарные системы, в которых новые формы образуются как отдельные учреждения и было проведено их сравнение с единичными или интегральными системами в которых новые и традиционные формы существуют в одном и том же учебном заведении. Были проведены примеры из опыта ВУЗ-ов различных Европейских стран. В некоторых случаях различные формы могут оставаться не связанными друг с другом, хотя и сгруппированы с административной точки зрения в виде единого ВУЗ-а.

19. В обоих организационных моделях, новые и традиционные формы подвергаются взаимному влиянию. Было отмечено, что тенденция к установлению академического статуса и стандартов является общим явлением. С другой стороны, были приведены примеры традиционных форм высшего образования, которые очень быстро приобрели преимущества, которыми обладают новые формы.

20. Был также обсужден вопрос о связи проблемы автономии высших учебных заведений и новых форм. Интегрирование решения могут быть связаны с растущим влиянием внешних групп на руководство университетов. Университеты, которые обладают большой степенью автономии не в состоянии вводить новые формы. В этих случаях, единственно возможным решением может быть образование отдельных институтов. Если нет согласованности между институтами в вопросе о введении новых форм, то в этих случаях требуется серьезное вмешательство вышестоящих органов.

21. В некоторых случаях, введение новых форм сопровождается специфическими ограничениями автономии университетов. Это может быть, например, в случае, когда университеты в одной и той же стране имеют единые планы для очных и заочных отделений.

22. Было высказано мнение о том, что высшее образование должно быть задачей только ВУЗ-ов. Это связано с вопросом о подготовке ВУЗ-ов для научной работы или работы, основанной на научных принципах. Были предложены также более широкие определения для того, чтобы высшее образование удовлетворяло нуждам отдельных лиц и общества в целом, в более широком смысле слова. Было высказано мнение, что во всех случаях высшее образование является более специализированным обучением или, по крайней мере, обучением, имеющим некоторое отношение к исследовательской деятельности.

23. Одной из основных проблем является вопрос об различии качества обучения в новых ВУЗ-ах и традиционных ВУЗ-ах. Было отмечено, что в некоторых случаях выпускники заочных ВУЗ-ов не рассматриваются на равных правах с выпускниками стационарных ВУЗ-ов. В качестве другого примера было отмечено, что профессора и преподаватели заочных и вечерних ВУЗ-ов должны иметь специфические качества, т.к. студенты этих ВУЗ-ов являются более требовательными. Все участники согласились, что мобильность между различными формами высших учебных заведений является существенным фактором и что, например, должны быть созданы возможности для перехода от

обучения на расстоянии к обучению на стационарных отделениях.

24. В некоторых случаях вопросы престижа и статуса институтов заставляют профсоюзные организации протестовать против введения новых форм высшего образования. Было высказано мнение, что новые категории студентов не должны обучаться в институтах имеющих низкий статус.

25. Некоторые участники высказались пессимистически относительно развития новых форм высшего образования в их странах. Было отмечено, что новые формы являются чуждыми для бюрократических систем, где имеется тенденция к стандартизации и к однообразию. В ряде случаев не оказывается достаточно преимущества таким целям образования как индивидуальное развитие личности и распределение ресурсов образования по отношению к новым категориям общества.

26. Также был поставлен вопрос, могут ли вне-университетские европейские исследовательские центры быть полезными развитию новых форм высшего образования. В соответствии с высказаниями некоторых участников такие центры могут быть использованы для дальнейшего обучения лиц, получивших первую степень. Другие участники высказали сомнения по этому поводу.

27. В результате дискуссии по данному вопросу было отмечено, что взаимоотношения между новыми формами и традиционными ВУЗ-ами должно быть рассмотрено в национальном контексте. Было предусмотрено, что типология взаимоотношений между обычными и новыми формами должны быть серьезно изучены Центром, включая различные вопросы вытекающие из этого взаимоотношения, а также и возможность найти общие решения сотрудничества.

III. Влияние новых форм высшего образования на социальную мобильность

28. Было высказано мнение, что исключительно трудно определить влияние новых форм высшего образования на социальную мобильность. Социальная мобильность зависит от многих факторов и, поэтому, трудно сделать отличие между эффектом на специфические формы высшего образования, высшее образование в целом и на образование вообще. Более того, во многих европейских странах в течение последних десятилетий произошли быстрые социальные и экономические изменения, которые оказали серьезное влияние на вопросы мобильности.

29. Некоторые участники подвергли сомнению концепцию мобильности и поставили вопрос, о том, должна ли мобильность являться важной целью образования и планирования образования.

30. Высшее образование рассматривается главным образом в связи с проблемой так называемой мобильности продвижения. Было отмечено, что существует определенное социальное продвижение от университетов, т.е. внутри производственных предприятий. В связи с этим, следует изучить роль высшего образования. Было отмечено, что по крайней мере в западно европейских странах, развитие образования не оказало существенного влияния в лучшую сторону на проблему равного доступа к образованию. Было также отмечено, что в большинстве современных обществ при отборе в ВУЗ-ы имеется тенденция к оценке личности и что такой отбор приводит к усилению социальной структуры.

31. Было отмечено, что несоответствие между числом выпускников высших учебных заведений и экономическими нуждами общества косвенным образом влияет на вопрос мобильности. Другими словами, выпускники высших учебных

заведений в ряде случаев, вынуждены поступать на работу, которая не полностью соответствует той квалификации, которую они получили в высшем учебном заведении. Это связано с тем, что многие должности заняты лицами, не имеющими специальной подготовки.

32. Многие участники высказались в пользу системного подхода для изучения проблемы мобильности в области образования. Мобильность должна быть изучена по отношению к приему в высшие учебные заведения и к выпуску. В этой связи была отмечена важность подготовки учащихся в начальной и средней школах, а также результат структуры и организации профессиональной работы: в некоторых секторах как например в медицине, почти не имеется возможности для внутреннего продвижения в должности.

33. Было предложено, чтобы системный подход был так же применен к анализу специфических проблем, касающихся карьеры личности. Например, поступление на работу выпускника зависит от качества его подготовки в ВУЗ-е, от условий того учреждения куда он поступает на работу, а также от других обстоятельств. Было также отмечено, что взаимоотношения между университетами и производственными предприятиями существенно отличается в социалистических странах, где оба типа учреждений являются государственными.

34. Из хода обсуждения было ясно, что полное влияние новых форм высшего образования на социальную мобильность может быть изучено только в более широком контексте и не может быть рассмотренно изолированно.

35. Возникает вопрос, могут ли новые формы высшего образования, которые были введены для того, чтобы помочь определенной категории людей в обществе получить высшее образование, быть использованы студентами традиционных ВУЗ-ов, которые оказались не успевающими. В таковых случаях это не способствует решению проблемы для той категории населения, для которой эти формы были предназначены.

36. Другой важной проблемой является заочное и вечернее обучение для женщин. Время постоянной работы, заботы о семье и сочетание с обучением, во многих случаях вызывает серьезные затруднения. Поэтому имеется надобность в специальном изучении вопроса в высшем образовании женщин.

ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

37. Участники пришли к выводу, что тема настоящего Симпозиума была выбрана очень удачно и что она соответствует нуждам европейских Государств-членов ЮНЕСКО. Проблемы, которые были подняты в процессе дискуссии, должны быть в дальнейшем изучены более подробно, а некоторые более важные темы должны стать предметом обсуждения на специальных симпозиумах, организованных Европейским Центром. Участники выразили свое глубокое удовлетворение и поздравили Центр с удачной подготовкой и организацией настоящего Симпозиума.

WORKING PAPER [x]

INTRODUCTION

(1) In recent years, the majority of European countries have felt a growing need to reform their higher education systems as they have hitherto existed in their traditional form.

(2) As numerous writers have pointed out this need for reform appears to be prompted, in the majority of cases, by a combination of demographic, economic and social considerations. Indeed, the change over from education for an elite to mass education, industrial development, scientific and technical progress, and the increasing demand for personnel at the professional and subprofessional levels and for life-long education and in-service occupational training have profoundly altered what were until recently the operating conditions of higher education and the tasks which devolved upon it.

(3) It was, in part, because of the similarity of the problems and subjects of concern which have emerged in a large number of European countries in connexion with this need to adapt education at higher level to the new needs and requirements of modern societies, that the second Conference of Ministers of Education of European Member States, which met in Bucharest from 26 November to 3 December 1973, recommended the Director-General of UNESCO to include among the future activities of the European Centre for Higher Education "a prognostic analysis of the qualitative and structural changes in European post-secondary education systems" (Recommendation No. II/17).

(4) At its second session (Bucharest, 9-11 December 1974), the Advisory Committee of the European Centre for Higher Education thus recommended that a meeting be held on new forms of higher education.

(5) The present symposium should therefore be seen in the context of these recommendations. Its main objectives are to exchange views and experience on the proposed topic in order to identify the data which are of greatest relevance to government departments and other authorities responsible for higher education in Europe; to formulate specific proposals for co-operation between States in the study and solving of problems arising in this domain; and to look for the most appropriate ways of bringing about concerted action with a view to developing the new forms of education.

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x This working paper is intended to facilitate an exchange of views on the proposed topics for discussion concerning new forms of higher education in Europe. The facts presented and the opinions expressed are not however an official statement of the Organization's viewpoint.

(6) This meeting is, moreover, of particular significance because it provides an opportunity for an examination at European level of problems which arise in this field and for a direct exchange of information on experiments which are being carried out in differing socio-economic contexts.

(7) In view of the complexity and diversity of the problem of new forms of higher education, it has been considered essential to restrict the discussions of the symposium to a number of key topics which seem to be of common concern to a large number of countries.

(8) As stated in the document entitled "Main topics for discussion" (ED-76/CONF.805/2), the proposed topics are as follows :

1. Definition of "new forms of higher education"; principles for classifying these forms; origin and development of new structures and description of their specific nature on the basis of typical examples in various European countries;

2. Structural, functional and educational relationships between new forms of higher education and conventional institutions;

3. Impact of new forms of institution on social mobility.

(9) As this working paper is designed as a basis for discussion, these three topics will be dealt with in turn. The symposium should particularly consider the specific and factual aspects of the problem of new forms of education, related activities which the European Centre for Higher Education might undertake in the future and the possibilities for co-operation in this respect between the institutions concerned in the various countries.

I. Definition of "new forms" of higher education and criteria for their classification.

(10) The problem of definition is mainly of a theoretical nature, but it also has a certain practical importance in connexion with the work of documentation and with the studies which need to be carried out on recent trends in higher education in Europe.

(11) Before discussing new forms we need to define, or at least to enumerate, the main characteristics of what may be regarded as the conventional forms. These characteristics may be said to be as follows :

In conventional higher education (even in the case of non-university post-secondary education), the students are normally young people aged between 18 and 24 who have completed their secondary schooling and who have no other principal occupation than the continuation of their studies. One further characteristic feature of conventional education is that, except in the case of repeating as a result of academic failure or for some other reason, the period of study is of specific duration or comprises a specific sequence of examinations. Once this period is over and/or once the examinations have been passed following an uninterrupted period of study, the student obtains a diploma, degree or other certificate of qualification. Education in its institutional form is then regarded as being completed.

(12) These general and well-known characteristics of conventional higher education have a number of inevitable consequences both from the sociological point of view and on the very conception of the transmission of knowledge.

(a) From the sociological point of view, the category of the population likely to be engaged in higher education of the conventional type is made up of students who are not gainfully employed. They are therefore presumed to be without dependants and either to belong to the well-off sections of society or to receive State grants which cover their needs. As conventional higher education also entails relatively frequent contacts between teachers and students (see (b) below) the teachers themselves are from a strictly limited category made up in the main of professionals solely or principally engaged in teaching in a post-secondary or university establishment.

(b) Moreover, conventional higher education, entailing as it does a specific period of study and a continuous teaching programme, presupposes the transmission of a relatively circumscribed body of knowledge; any advanced training or further acquisition of knowledge beyond the diploma or degree level is therefore left to the individual initiative of the former student. As education of this kind is given to individuals who have a specific objective in view, to be attained through full-time study which is also of specific duration, the basic procedure for the transmission of knowledge necessarily entails contacts between teachers and learners (lectures, tutorials) sometimes supplemented by library or laboratory work.

(13) It would probably be rash to condemn the so-called conventional forms out of hand and to regard them without prior examination, as being unsuited to the prescribed functions of higher education in the present-day European context. It seems increasingly clear, however, that such conventional higher education, at least on its own, can no longer fulfil the entire range of education and training functions ascribable to higher education. One of the reasons often given for this inadequacy is that higher education has very largely become a form of "mass" education. But although it is clear that since the end of the Second World War there has been a spectacular increase in all European countries in the number of students, the rate of increase has fallen off considerably in the last few years. Higher education students today are still a minority, and sometimes a rather small minority of their age group, even in highly industrialized countries. This fact seems therefore to indicate that the need to renew the traditional forms of education stems in reality from deeper causes. The real reasons, it seems, are to be found rather in certain changes of a sociological nature and also in the rapid growth of knowledge itself.

(14) With regard to the sociological context, the last few decades have, in particular, been marked by a general rise in the standard of living and by an increase in leisure time among the economically active sectors of the population. Moreover, certain jobs or occupations which have hitherto been purely technical or manual have become increasingly intellectual as a result of the large-scale introduction of new technologies such as electronics, computers or automation, which now bring the worker into direct contact with

certain aspects of the applied and even the theoretical sciences. For this reason an increasingly wide section of the population, which had previously neither wanted nor been able to enter higher education, now wants such education and possesses the requisite personal financial resources. Moreover, the gradual disappearance of precise lines of demarcation between intellectual work and certain types of technical and manual work referred to above, not only motivates workers to improve their education but gives rise to an objective social need to increase the number of people with higher education. Lastly, it should be added that increased leisure time gives individuals a desire, which can now be satisfied, for greater intellectual fulfilment in areas which, in many cases, have no immediate technical relevance; this may explain the growing numbers of students wishing to enrol in social sciences and humanities courses.

(15) It is common knowledge that in the last fifty years the pace of development of knowledge has undergone a profound change. In both natural sciences and the social sciences, the knowledge acquired has become increasingly transient. New disciplines are coming into existence on everyhand. It has already become a cliché to refer to activities entailing a multidisciplinary approach or the emergence of interdisciplinary problem solving which often brings together fields of knowledge that in the past had had no systematic contact (mathematics and the humanities; chemistry-physics and archaeology; medical psychology and literary history, etc.).

(16) As a result of these various changes, the basic characteristics of the conventional forms of education are being called in question. In the first place, it no longer seems possible to restrict higher education to institutions which, by virtue of their very structures and methods, remove a certain number of students for a continuous and sometimes very protracted period of time from the working life on which they had embarked or from an established family environment. Moreover, it is becoming increasingly difficult to train specialists or even intellectuals in the broad sense of the term within a specified period of time and on the basis of cut-and-dried courses of study unless they are also given the opportunity systematically to update their knowledge.

(17) There is thus a general tendency in Europe to overcome such constraints on the one hand by establishing institutions which provide a means of extending or surmounting the traditional sociological boundaries of the student population and, on the other hand, by increasing the flexibility of old-established institutions and transforming them in such a way that their structures and syllabuses make greater allowance for the expansion of knowledge. The pursuit of these two objectives entails a series of measures which in most cases have a double purpose: on the one hand to relax the rigid chronological framework of courses in institutions of the older type, in particular by making provision for students to break off and resume their studies or by breaking down courses into "modular" units; on the other hand, to introduce institutional or technical reforms which enable the student to pursue his studies without being obliged to attend the higher education establishment in person. Measures of this kind obviously imply changes in syllabuses and curricula and in the way in which special subjects are defined, which is in any case conceivable within the framework of institutions of the traditional type too. They also imply modifications in the composition of the teaching faculty as teaching is

no longer the exclusive preserve of persons employed on a full-time basis in higher education institutions.

(18) A tentative definition of the "new forms", based on the above considerations and contrasted with traditional forms, might be put forward, principally with the aim of narrowing the field of investigation. Such a definition would embrace institutional forms established with a view to :

(a) enabling a new student population to benefit from higher education;

(b) enabling the student to use the period of study in other ways than spending it in an institution of the traditional type, thus enabling him to engage simultaneously or intermittently (during the day, the year, or over longer periods, or even throughout the professional career) in activities other than higher studies, regardless of whether these activities are linked with the studies in question;

(c) making it possible to use as teachers specialists whose chief occupation lies outside the university.

(19) When these criteria have been selected, the typological classification should itself serve only essentially practical aims such as the collection and classification of documentation and the definition of subjects of study related to the new forms. Although one could easily think of other parameters, it might perhaps be useful to refer to those which are already mentioned in the symposium document entitled "Main topics for discussion":

(a) vocational guidance as opposed to guidance according to subject;

(b) the higher education levels to which the various new structures correspond: short courses alone; complete courses up to the first degree level; post-graduate or post-university courses;

(c) the place of "distance teaching" and its methods and techniques.

II. Relationship between the new forms of higher education and institutions of the conventional type.

(20) This question seems to be of prime importance for the future of higher education in Europe. In a simplified form it might be summarized as follows: are the new forms destined to replace the institutions of the conventional type or are they merely complementary or parallel systems intended to make up for the obvious inadequacies of the institutions inherited from the past ?

(21) There seems at present to be no clear trend in European countries in this connexion. In the United Kingdom, for example, the co-existence of polytechnics and universities has given rise to a dual system which is further complicated by the existence of the Open University. France also has a multiple-stream system comprising institutions ranging from the most traditional to the most innovative. In other countries, universities which

seem hardly to have been affected by changes in recent decades co-exist with other schemes, the initiative for which has generally come from the government , designed to establish more flexible forms of education. In Hungary, it seems that experiments in engineering education are preparing the ground for a more general reform, at least in certain disciplines. In the USSR the highly complex established system of institutions of higher education co-exist with the "ZAVOD - VTUZ" x.

(22) As far as administration is concerned, the relationship is equally complex. Some forms of distance teaching, for example, are administered by institutions of the traditional university type whilst in other cases it is totally independent of pre-existing institutions, even from the administrative and financial points of view. Nevertheless, this does not seem to be a determining factor in its development, as the form of administration is often determined by the actual structure of government by the degree of autonomy enjoyed by universities or by other factors.

(23) It seems, however, that the two extreme hypotheses concerning the relationship between new forms and traditional institutions should both be ruled out.

(a) The hypothesis that the new forms are destined to supplant the previous forms and in themselves represent the future of the entire higher education system is indeed untenable. This way of thinking, although widespread among those responsible for theoretical problems and for the development of education, is not only opposed (often out of a basic conservatism) by many university teachers who would be the first affected, but also disregards certain facts concerning an already foreseeable future. Unless one assumes, probably unrealistically, that an abrupt "de-schooling" process will occur, future generations in Europe and no doubt elsewhere will go through the successive stages of primary and secondary education, which will also be loosened, modernised and democratised, but which will nevertheless continue to represent the main stream of education for the great majority of young people. For this reason, many students, having completed these two basic levels, will naturally wish to embark on higher studies; such a choice will moreover be in keeping with economic considerations and the needs of planning as practised in most countries. Thus, a system in which institutions of full-time education continue to exist and to provide education for groups of relatively young students are probably bound to remain with us for several decades to come.

(b) The opposite hypothesis according to which the universities or other higher education establishments will remain unchanged and should merely be supplemented by people's universities or other complementary institutions as a means of solving certain educational problems specific to adults also seems rather unconvincing. It would lead, in effect, to a kind of two-tier system with

x "factory-cum-technical colleges"

the upper tier enjoying high intellectual and social prestige whilst the lower tier would be without real prestige and, as far as its job outlets and the quality of its teaching were concerned, would have little to commend it. It is worthwhile drawing attention to this danger which is already threatening some countries.

(24) This being so, the most appropriate variant would seem to be, on the one hand, to make universities and other higher education institutions of the traditional type more flexible by enabling them, in particular, to split up the period of study, at least on an optional basis, and to modernize and diversify their curricula and methods; and, on the other hand, to establish or maintain distinctively innovative institutions open to people who have already begun their working life and allowing them to pursue courses of higher education by means of modules which are self-contained but which lend themselves to being sub-divided or supplemented during periods of study of variable duration and which lastly, call upon the services of a broad range of qualified persons outside of the traditional teaching community. Moreover, whatever the administrative link between the old and new forms, it seems essential that there should be no insuperable barrier between the two types of institution and that transfer from one to the other should always remain possible, at least at certain points in the study programme. A system conceived along these lines would also make it possible to avoid a situation in which traditional studies and studies carried out in the new institutions vied with each other for prestige and, at the same time, to achieve equality of opportunity with regard to subsequent employment.

(25) These general considerations will no doubt be applied very differently depending on the degree and methods of planning, on the specific characteristics of institutional and university autonomy, and on structural differences in the economy and in society in the different countries. These requirements seem, however, to be fundamental and to be common to most of the industrialized countries and also to a number of developing countries.

(26) It is nevertheless probable that, even after the two systems have thus been opened up and brought closer together, they will remain quite distinct at certain levels of their programme or in certain specialities. At the higher levels of training for post-graduate or post-university research or in disciplines requiring systematic and protracted work in laboratories, hospitals or other establishments, studies will necessarily follow the "conventional" academic pattern and will merely undergo organisational changes associated with developments in the discipline concerned. The essential aim is not to transform teaching at this level at all cost but to make access available to all, including those studying in institutions of a new type.

III. Impact of new forms of institution on social mobility.

(27) In Part II of this paper we tried to assess the possible influence of institutions of a new type on the internal development of higher educa-

tion systems. In Part III we shall be concerned with their impact on the society in which these new forms operate.

(28) There is a noticeable shortage of statistical data on this matter. Indeed, although some data are available concerning the composition by occupational origin of the student population in a number of institutions, the Open University for instance, such data are only really meaningful when collected with the occupational composition of the country as a whole and compared with the situation obtaining prior to the emergence of such new institutions. Existing statistics have little to tell us in this respect; with the exception of a number of socialist countries, the percentage enrolment of students in the new forms of education is relatively low and the variations in themselves are slight. It is clear that systematic statistical work is required in this field and would be likely to provide useful information; such work should, however, be conducted over a sufficiently long period of time to enable the main trends at national level to be identified.

(29) At the present stage, the most important thing seems to be to consider the opening which these new forms represent in the eyes of the working population, the awareness of possible increased mobility which they create among them, the ambitions which they foster and the extent to which they conduce to the emergence of a more open society without rigid occupational barriers and without artificial compartmentalization between manual or technical workers and intellectual workers. The main point is perhaps this increased social mobility which ensues when higher education is available to all those who have the necessary ability.

(30) The benefits of such increased social mobility, or, at any rate, of the awareness of the possibility of such mobility, seem self-evident. It would still be useful, however, to assess its effects, in particular on the cost of financing the education system in general, and of higher education in particular. Studies of this kind should no doubt be carried out with a view to widening the scope of the problem in order to take in more than mere short-term economic considerations. Indeed, there seems to be no doubt that, in the medium and long term, the rise in occupational standards and the individual fulfilment which result from the establishment and development of new forms of higher education will not only have obvious socio-political benefits but will also lead to a rise in the quality and productivity of labour as a counterpart to what is commonly referred to as the quality of life.

DOCUMENT DE TRAVAIL [x]

INTRODUCTION

(1) La plupart des pays d'Europe ont éprouvé au cours des dernières années, un besoin grandissant de réformer leur système d'enseignement supérieur tel qu'il existe dans ses formes traditionnelles.

(2) Ainsi que l'ont souligné de nombreux auteurs, ce besoin de réforme semble motivé, dans la plupart des cas, pour des raisons à la fois d'ordre démographique, économique et social. En effet, le passage d'un enseignement d'élite à un enseignement de masse, le développement industriel, le progrès scientifique et technique, la demande accrue en cadres moyens et supérieurs, les exigences de l'éducation permanente et du recyclage professionnel pour un nombre croissant d'individus ont profondément modifié les conditions de fonctionnement et les tâches assignées à l'enseignement supérieur jusqu'à une période récente.

(3) En raison, notamment, de la similitude des problèmes et des préoccupations qui ont surgi dans un grand nombre de pays européens en ce qui concerne cette adaptation nécessaire de l'enseignement du troisième degré aux nouveaux impératifs et besoins des sociétés modernes, la Deuxième Conférence des ministres de l'éducation des Etats membres d'Europe, réunie à Bucarest du 26 novembre au 3 décembre 1973, recommandait au Directeur général de l'UNESCO, d'inclure dans les activités futures du Centre européen pour l'enseignement supérieur, "l'analyse prospective de l'évolution qualitative et structurelle des systèmes d'enseignement post-secondaire en Europe" (Recommandation No. II/17).

(4) Le Comité consultatif du Centre européen pour l'enseignement supérieur recommandait pour sa part, lors de sa deuxième session (Bucarest, 9-11 décembre 1974), l'organisation d'une réunion portant sur les nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur.

(5) C'est donc dans le cadre de ces recommandations que se situe le présent Colloque. Son but est essentiellement de procéder à un échange de vues et d'expériences sur le thème proposé, afin d'en dégager les données les plus significative pour les administrations et autres instances responsables de l'enseignement supérieur en Europe; de formuler des proposition concrètes de coopération entre les Etats, en ce qui concerne l'étude et la solution des problèmes qui se posent en cette matière; de rechercher enfin les voies les meilleures qui conduiraient à une action concertée en ce qui

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[x] Le présent document de travail est destiné à faciliter un échange de vues sur les thèmes de discussion proposés concernant les nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur en Europe. Cependant, les faits présentés et les opinions exprimées ne constituent pas une prise de position officielle de l'Organisation.

concerne le développement des nouvelles formes d'enseignement.

(6) Cette rencontre présente par ailleurs un intérêt particulier puisqu'il s'agit d'un examen à l'échelon européen des problèmes qui se posent dans ce domaine, permettant un échange direct d'informations sur les expériences qui se déroulent dans des contextes socio-économiques différents.

(7) Etant donné les aspects complexes et multiples que revêt le problème des nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur, il a paru indispensable de limiter les débats du colloque à quelques thèmes privilégiés dont la préoccupation semble commune à un grand nombre de pays.

(8) Ainsi que l'indique le document intitulé : "Principaux thèmes de discussion" (ED-76/CONF.805/2), les sujets proposés sont donc les suivants :

1. Définition des "nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur"; éléments d'une typologie de ces formes; origine et développement des nouvelles structures et description de leurs particularités sur la base de quelques exemples caractéristiques dans divers pays d'Europe;

2. Relations structurelles, fonctionnelles et pédagogiques entre les nouvelles formes et les institutions de type traditionnel;

3. Impact des nouvelles formes institutionnelles sur la mobilité sociale.

(9) Le présent document de travail étant conçu comme une base de discussion, ces trois thèmes seront successivement abordés. Il serait souhaitable que les débats du Colloque mettent l'accent sur les aspects concrets et factuels du problème des nouvelles formes d'enseignement, sur les activités futures que le Centre européen pourrait déployer dans ce domaine et enfin, sur la coopération qui pourrait s'établir à cet égard entre les institutions concernées dans les divers pays.

I. Définition et critères de classification des "nouvelles formes" d'enseignement supérieur.

(10) Le problème de la définition revêt un caractère principalement théorique; il comporte cependant aussi une certaine importance pratique en liaison avec le travail de documentation et les études qui devraient être effectuées en ce qui concerne l'évolution récente de l'enseignement supérieur en Europe.

(11) Parler de nouvelles formes présuppose qu'on fournisse une définition, ou tout au moins qu'on énumère les caractéristiques principales des formes pouvant être considérées comme traditionnelles. Ces caractéristiques sont semble-t-il les suivantes :

Dans l'enseignement supérieur traditionnel (même lorsqu'il s'agit d'enseignement post-secondaire non universitaire), l'enseignement est généralement délivré à des jeunes entre dix-huit et vingt-quatre ans, ayant terminé leurs études secondaires et n'ayant d'autre occupation primordiale

que la poursuite de leurs études. Par ailleurs, cet enseignement traditionnel se caractérise par le fait que, sauf en cas de redoublement à la suite d'un échec, ou pour quelque autre raison, il revêt une durée déterminée ou comporte un cycle d'examens déterminé. Cette durée étant révolue et/ou les examens ayant été passés avec succès à l'issue d'une période de travail continue, l'étudiant obtient alors un diplôme, un grade ou toute autre attestation de qualification. L'éducation sous sa forme institutionnelle est alors considérée comme terminée.

(12) Ces caractéristiques générales et bien connues de l'enseignement supérieur traditionnel entraînent certaines conséquences inéluctables tant au plan sociologique qu'au plan de la conception même de transmission des connaissances.

(a) Au plan sociologique, la catégorie de population susceptible de bénéficier de l'enseignement supérieur de type traditionnel se compose d'étudiants non engagés dans la vie active et ne disposant d'aucun revenu professionnel. Il s'agit donc d'individus supposés n'avoir pas de charges familiales et qui, soit appartiennent à des couches aisées, soit perçoivent de la part de l'Etat des subsides permettant de pourvoir à leurs propres besoins. Etant donné que l'enseignement supérieur de type traditionnel implique, en outre, un contact relativement fréquent entre professeurs et étudiants (voir (b) ci-dessous), la catégorie des enseignants se trouve elle-même étroitement délimitée et se compose principalement de professionnels dont la seule ou principale occupation consiste à délivrer un enseignement dans un établissement post-secondaire ou universitaire.

(b) Par ailleurs, l'enseignement supérieur traditionnel, comportant une durée d'études déterminée et un programme d'enseignement continu, présuppose la transmission d'un corps de connaissances relativement circonscrit; tout perfectionnement ou toute continuation de la formation et de l'acquisition de connaissances après l'obtention d'un diplôme sont alors laissés à l'initiative personnelle de l'ancien étudiant. Cet enseignement étant délivré à des individus ayant en vue un objectif déterminé, au prix d'un travail à plein temps, lui aussi de durée déterminée, la procédure essentielle de transmission des connaissances s'opère nécessairement par le contact enseignants/enseignés (cours, séminaires) complété parfois par des travaux en bibliothèque ou en laboratoire.

(13) Il serait sans doute hâtif de procéder à une condamnation globale des formes dites traditionnelles et de les considérer, sans examen préalable, comme inaptes à remplir les fonctions prescrites à l'enseignement supérieur dans le contexte européen actuel. Cependant, il semble de plus en plus évident que cet enseignement supérieur de type traditionnel ne peut plus, du moins à lui seul, assumer l'ensemble des tâches d'éducation et de formation qui relèvent du "troisième degré". On invoque souvent comme raison à cette insuffisance, le phénomène général de "massification" de l'enseignement supérieur. Or, s'il est évident que le nombre des étudiants s'est accru de manière spectaculaire depuis la fin de la deuxième guerre mondiale dans tous les pays d'Europe, le rythme de cette augmentation s'est sensiblement ralenti depuis quelques années. Aujourd'hui encore, il s'agit toujours d'une minorité, et parfois d'une minorité relativement faible par

rapport à la classe d'âge correspondante, qui bénéficie d'un enseignement supérieur, même dans les pays hautement industrialisés. Ce fait semble donc indiquer que le besoin de renouveler les formes traditionnelles provient en réalité de causes plus profondes. Les vraies raisons doivent, semble-t-il, être davantage recherchées, d'une part, dans certains changements d'ordre sociologique; d'autre part, dans le rythme d'évolution des connaissances elles-mêmes.

(14) En ce qui concerne le contexte sociologique, les dernières décennies ont été notamment marquées par une évolution générale du niveau de vie, ainsi qu'un accroissement du temps de loisir dans les couches exerçant une activité professionnelle. Par ailleurs, certains emplois ou professions, jusqu'alors purement techniques ou manuels, ont revêtu un caractère de plus en plus intellectuel à la suite de l'apparition massive des technologies nouvelles, telles l'électronique, l'informatique ou l'automation, qui mettent désormais le travailleur en contact direct avec certains domaines des sciences appliquées et même théoriques. Il s'ensuit qu'une couche toujours plus étendue de population, qui ne pouvait ni ne désirait jusqu'à présent bénéficier de l'enseignement supérieur, éprouve le souhait de s'y engager et dispose, pour ce faire, de moyens financiers personnels. En outre, la disparition progressive de limites précises entre travail intellectuel et certains types de travaux techniques et manuels, mentionnée plus haut, entraîne non seulement le désir chez les travailleurs de s'instruire davantage, mais provoque un besoin social objectif consistant à accroître le nombre de ceux dont les connaissances correspondent à une formation supérieure. Il faut ajouter enfin, que l'augmentation du temps de loisir fait apparaître chez l'individu, un désir, devenu désormais accessible, d'épanouir sa personnalité intellectuelle dans des domaines qui souvent n'ont pas de portée technique immédiate; ceci explique sans doute, l'afflux croissant d'étudiants désireux de s'inscrire en sciences humaines et sociales.

(15) Comme on le sait, le rythme d'évolution des connaissances s'est profondément modifié au cours du dernier demi-siècle. Le caractère éphémère des connaissances acquises s'accentue tant dans le domaine scientifique que dans le domaine des sciences sociales. Partout, de nouvelles disciplines voient le jour. C'est déjà un lieu commun d'évoquer les activités impliquant une approche pluridisciplinaire ou de mentionner l'apparition de problématiques interdisciplinaires, mettant souvent en rapport des champs de connaissances qui n'avaient entretenu par le passé, aucun contact systématique (mathématiques et sciences humaines; chimie-physique et archéologie; psychologie médicale et histoire littéraire, etc.).

(16) A la suite de ces divers changements, les caractéristiques essentielles des formes d'enseignement traditionnelles se trouvent remises en cause. Tout d'abord, il semble qu'il ne soit plus possible de maintenir, comme formes uniques d'enseignement supérieur, des institutions qui par leurs structures et leurs méthodes mêmes, soustraient un certain nombre d'étudiants à une vie professionnelle où ils se sont engagés, ou à un milieu familial déjà constitué, pour une période continue et parfois très longue. Par ailleurs, il s'avère de plus en plus difficile de former des spécialistes ou même des intellectuels au sens large du terme, au cours d'une période de temps déterminée et sur la base de programmes d'enseignement figés, sans leur offrir la possibilité de mettre systématiquement à jour leurs connaissances.

(17) On constate ainsi une tendance générale en Europe à se libérer de telles contraintes par la création d'institutions permettant d'une part, d'élargir ou de surmonter les limites sociologiques traditionnelles de la "clientèle estudiantine"; d'autre part, d'assouplir et de transformer les institutions anciennes afin que leurs structures et leurs programmes tiennent compte davantage de l'évolution des connaissances. La poursuite de ces deux objectifs implique une série de mesures qui le plus souvent ont une double portée: on tente, d'une part, d'assouplir le schéma chronologique rigide des anciennes institutions en permettant notamment des abandons et des reprises, ou en adoptant un fractionnement "modulaire"; on introduit, par ailleurs, des réformes d'ordre institutionnel ou technique permettant à l'étudiant de poursuivre ses études sans être astreint à une présence physique au siège même de l'établissement d'enseignement supérieur. Des mesures de cet ordre supposent évidemment l'introduction de changements dans les programmes et plans d'études, et dans la définition des spécialités, ce qui peut s'imaginer d'ailleurs aussi dans le cadre d'institutions de type classique. Elles entraînent, en outre, des modifications dans la composition même du corps professoral puisque l'enseignement n'est plus nécessairement l'apanage de personnes dont toute l'activité se trouve déterminée par une présence de travail continue dans des institutions d'enseignement supérieur.

(18) En tenant compte de ces considérations, et en opposition avec les formes traditionnelles, une définition provisoire des "nouvelles formes", destinée essentiellement à délimiter le choix des recherches, pourrait être proposée. Cette définition engloberait les formes institutionnelles créées en vue de :

(a) permettre à une clientèle estudiantine nouvelle de bénéficier de l'enseignement supérieur;

(b) permettre d'utiliser le temps d'étude autrement que dans les institutions de type traditionnel, ouvrant ainsi la voie à la poursuite parallèle ou intermittente (dans la journée, dans l'année, au cours de périodes plus longues, ou même dans la carrière professionnelle tout entière) d'activités autres que la participation aux études supérieures, que ces activités soient ou non en liaison avec les études poursuivies;

(c) permettre d'avoir recours, en tant qu'enseignants, à des spécialistes dont l'occupation principale se situe en dehors du cadre universitaire.

(19) Une fois ces critères retenus, la classification typologique ne devrait servir elle-même qu'à des buts essentiellement pratiques, tels que la collecte et la classification de la documentation, ainsi que la détermination de sujets d'études se rapportant aux nouvelles formes. Bien que d'autres paramètres puissent être aisément imaginés, il s'avérerait peut-être utile de se reporter à ceux déjà mentionnés dans le document du Colloque intitulé: "Principaux thèmes de discussion" :

(a) l'orientation professionnelle par opposition à une orientation disciplinaire;

(b) le niveau de l'enseignement supérieur auquel correspondent les différentes structures nouvelles: cycle court uniquement; cycle complet jusqu'au premier grade universitaire; cycle postgradué ou postuniversitaire;

(c) la place de l'enseignement à distance et les méthodes et techniques qui s'y rapportent.

II. Relations entre les nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur et les institutions de type traditionnel.

(20) Cette question constitue, semble-t-il, un problème essentiel pour l'avenir de l'enseignement supérieur en Europe. Formulée de manière simplifiée, elle pourrait se résumer comme suit: les nouvelles formes sont-elles appelées à remplacer les institutions de type traditionnel ou constituent-elles simplement des systèmes complémentaires ou parallèles destinés à pallier les insuffisances évidentes des institutions héritées du passé ?

(21) La tendance dans les pays européens semble actuellement peu claire à ce sujet. Au Royaume-Uni, par exemple, la coexistence des écoles polytechniques ("Polytechnics") et des universités a engendré un système à caractère binaire, rendu cependant plus complexe encore par l'existence d'une "Open University". La France possède également un système à filières multiples, comportant un éventail d'institutions allant des plus traditionnelles aux plus novatrices. Dans d'autres pays, des universités qui ne semblent guère avoir été touchées par les changements des dernières décennies, coexistent avec des initiatives, généralement d'origine gouvernementale, visant à instaurer des formes d'enseignement plus souples. En Hongrie, les expériences menées dans le domaine de la formation des ingénieurs semblent ouvrir la voie à une réforme plus globale, du moins dans certaines disciplines. En URSS, le système aux ramifications très complexes des anciens établissements d'enseignement supérieur coexiste avec les "ZAVOD-VTUZ" (1).

(22) En ce qui concerne l'administration, les relations sont non moins complexes. Dans certains cas, les formes d'enseignement à distance, par exemple, sont administrées par les institutions de type universitaire traditionnel; dans d'autres, l'enseignement à distance est totalement indépendant des structures anciennes, même du point de vue administratif et financier. Cependant, il ne semble pas qu'il s'agisse là d'une caractéristique déterminante de l'évolution, car le mode d'administration est souvent déterminé par la structure même de l'appareil de l'Etat, par le degré d'autonomie des universités, ou par d'autres facteurs encore.

(23) Il semble bien, cependant, que les deux hypothèses extrêmes concernant les relations entre formes nouvelles et institutions traditionnelles, doivent être tour à tour écartées.

(a) En effet, l'hypothèse selon laquelle les nouvelles formes sont destinées à supplanter les formes anciennes et représentent en elles-mêmes, l'avenir de tout le système d'enseignement supérieur, ne peut être retenue. Ce mode de pensée, tout en étant répandu dans les milieux chargés des problèmes théoriques et d'évolution de

(1) "écoles techniques supérieures d'usines".

l'éducation se heurte non seulement à l'opposition (souvent inspirée par un conservatisme de principe) de nombreux universitaires qui seraient les premiers concernés, mais ignore en outre certaines réalités d'un avenir déjà prévisible. A moins de postuler une "déscolarisation" brutale, mais sans doute utopique, les générations futures passeront en Europe, comme vraisemblablement ailleurs, par les étapes de l'enseignement primaire et secondaire, également assoupli, modernisé et démocratisé, mais qui n'en demeurera pas moins la principale filière de formation pour la grande majorité des jeunes. De ce fait, de nombreux étudiants souhaiteront naturellement poursuivre à l'issue de ces deux cycles de base, des études supérieures; ce choix s'avérera d'ailleurs conforme à des considérations d'ordre économique et aux besoins d'une planification pratiquée dans la plupart des pays. Ainsi donc, un système dans lequel subsisteront des institutions d'enseignement à plein temps et délivrant un enseignement à des groupes d'étudiants relativement jeunes demeurera sans doute inéluctable au cours de plusieurs décennies encore.

(b) L'hypothèse contraire selon laquelle les universités ou autres établissements d'enseignement supérieur n'ont à subir aucun changement, mais doivent s'accompagner simplement d'universités populaires ou d'autres institutions complémentaires, permettant de résoudre certains problèmes éducatifs propres à la population adulte, semble également peu convaincante. Elle conduirait, en effet, à une sorte de stratification du système qui se verrait partagé en une branche "noble" jouissant d'un grand prestige intellectuel et social, et une branche "cadette" sans prestige véritable et ne présentant quant à ses débouchés et à la qualité même de son enseignement, qu'un attrait médiocre. Un tel danger, déjà présent dans certains pays du monde, mérite d'être souligné.

(24) Dans ces conditions, la variante qui semblerait la plus appropriée consisterait d'une part, à assouplir les universités et autres institutions d'enseignement supérieur traditionnel, en leur permettant notamment de fractionner le temps d'études, à titre au moins facultatif, et de moderniser en les diversifiant, leurs programmes et leurs méthodes; d'autre part, à créer ou maintenir des institutions franchement novatrices, ouvertes aux personnes déjà engagées dans la vie active professionnelle, permettant de poursuivre des études supérieures par modules suffisants en eux-mêmes, mais susceptibles d'être scindés ou complétés au cours de périodes de durée variable, faisant appel, enfin, à de larges compétences en dehors même du corps professoral traditionnel. Par ailleurs, quel que soit le lien administratif existant entre les anciennes et les nouvelles formes, il semble essentiel qu'aucun obstacle infranchissable ne sépare les deux types d'institutions et que le passage de l'un à l'autre demeure toujours possible, au moins à certaines étapes du programme d'études. Une telle conception du système permettrait en outre d'écarter toute rivalité de prestige entre les études traditionnelles et les études effectuées dans les institutions nouvelles, et d'égaliser en même temps, les chances de débouchés.

(25) Ces considérations générales trouveront sans doute des applications très différentes en fonction du degré et des méthodes de planification, des particularités de l'autonomie institutionnelle et universitaire, et des différences de structure au niveau économique et social, dans les divers pays. Il s'agit cependant d'exigences qui semblent fondamentales et communes à la plupart des Etats industrialisés, ainsi qu'à un certain nombre de pays en voie de développement.

(26) Il s'avère néanmoins probable que les deux systèmes rendus ainsi perméables et de plus en plus rapprochés, demeureront cependant très distincts à certains échelons des programmes ou dans certaines spécialités. Aux niveaux élevés de la préparation à la recherche postgraduée ou postuniversitaire, ou dans les disciplines qui exigent une assiduité systématique et de longue durée dans des laboratoires et des établissements hospitaliers ou autres, les études se poursuivront nécessairement selon le mode académique "traditionnel", subissant simplement les transformations d'ordre organisationnel, liées à l'évolution de la discipline elle-même. L'essentiel n'est pas de transformer à tout prix les enseignements à ce niveau, mais d'assurer que l'accès y soit possible pour tous, y compris pour ceux qui poursuivent leurs études dans des institutions de type nouveau.

III. Impact des nouvelles formes institutionnelles sur la mobilité sociale.

(27) Nous avons tenté au chapitre II de mesurer l'influence possible qu' exerceront les institutions de type nouveau sur l'évolution intrinsèque des systèmes d'enseignement supérieur. On se demandera à présent, dans cette troisième partie, quel sera leur impact sur la société même dans laquelle ces nouvelles formes sont appelées à fonctionner.

(28) Sur ce plan, les données statistiques font sensiblement défaut. En effet, même si l'on possède certains éléments d'information concernant la composition par origine professionnelle des étudiants dans quelques institutions, comme la Open University par exemple, ces données ne deviennent réellement significatives que projetées sur la composition par profession d'un pays dans son ensemble, et comparées à la situation telle qu'elle existait avant l'apparition de ces institutions nouvelles. Les statistiques actuelles sont à cet égard peu révélatrices; à l'exception de quelques pays socialistes, les pourcentages indiquant la proportion d'étudiants se rattachant aux nouvelles formes d'enseignement sont relativement faibles et les variations peu importantes en elles-mêmes. De toute évidence, un travail statistique dans ce domaine serait nécessaire et sans doute prometteur; il devrait cependant se poursuivre au cours d'une période suffisamment longue pour permettre de dégager les caractéristiques essentielles d'une évolution à un niveau national.

(29) Au stade actuel, il semble que l'important soit de considérer l'ouverture que peuvent marquer ces nouvelles formes aux yeux de la population active, la conscience qu'elles lui donnent d'une plus grande mobilité possible, les ambitions qu'elles encouragent et le glissement qu'elles provoquent vers une société plus ouverte, sans barrières professionnelles rigides et sans séparations artificielles entre travailleurs manuels ou techniques, et travailleurs intellectuels. L'essentiel réside peut-être dans cette mobilité sociale accrue, lorsque chaque individu ayant les capacités nécessaires est en mesure de bénéficier de l'enseignement supérieur.

(30) Les bénéfices d'un tel accroissement de la mobilité sociale, ou du moins de la conscience d'une telle mobilité possible, semblent évidents. Il n'est pas sans intérêt, cependant, d'en mesurer les effets, notamment sur les coûts de financement du système éducatif en général, et de l'enseignement supérieur en particulier. De telles études devraient sans doute être effectuées avec le souci d'élargir le problème au-delà de simples considérations d'ordre économique à court terme. En effet, il paraît certain qu'à moyen ou à long termes, l'élévation du niveau professionnel et l'épanouissement humain qu'entraînent l'implantation et le développement des nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur, se solderont non seulement par des avantages socio-politiques évidents, mais en outre par une élévation de la qualité et de la productivité du travail, parallèlement à ce qu'il est convenu d'appeler la qualité de la vie.

РАБОЧИЙ ДОКУМЕНТ x)

ВВЕДЕНИЕ

(1) В течение последних лет в большинстве Европейских стран ощущалась непрерывно растущая необходимость реорганизовать существующую систему высшего образования традиционного типа.

(2) По-видимому, так как это подчеркивают многие авторы, эта необходимость продиктована в большинстве случаев причинами демографического, экономического и социального порядка. Так, переход от образования для избранных к массовому образованию, развитие промышленности, научные и технические успехи, все возрастающая нужда в средних и высших кадрах, требования постоянного обучения и профессиональной переподготовки для непрерывно растущего количества людей, существенно изменили условия функционирования и сущность заданий стоявших до недавнего времени перед высшим образованием.

(3) Вследствие сходства проблем и забот возникших в многочисленных Европейских стран в связи с появившейся необходимостью приспособления образования третьей степени к новым требованиям и нуждам современного общества, на второй Конференции министров образования европейских государств-членов, имевшей место в Бухаресте от 26-го ноября по 3-ее декабря 1973 г., Генеральному Директору ЮНЕСКО рекомендовалось включить в план будущей деятельности Европейского Центра по высшему образованию "прогнозный анализ качественного и структурного развития систем послешкольного обучения в Европе" (Рекомендация № II/17).

(4) На второй сессии (Бухарест, 9-11 декабря 1974 г.) Консультативным комитетом Европейского Центра по высшему образованию, также было рекомендовано организовать собрание для обсуждения новых форм высшего образования.

(5) Настоящий Симпозиум предусмотрен для обсуждения этих рекомендаций. Его основная цель - это приступить к обмену мнениями и опытом по предложенной теме, с целью выявления самых существенных данных для администрации учебных заведений и других органов ответственных за высшее образование в Европе; наложить конкретные предложения по сотрудничеству между Государствами в области образования и дать решения по вопросам поднимающимся в этой области, и наконец, установить оптимальные пути для согласования деятельности в области развития новых форм образования.

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x) Настоящий рабочий документ предназначен для того чтобы облегчить обмен мнениями по предложенным к обсуждению Темам о новых формах высшего образования в Европе. Приводимые факты и мнения не представляют собой, однако, официальной точки зрения Организации.

(6) Кроме этого, эта встреча представляет особый интерес, т.к. речь идет о рассмотрении в европейском масштабе вопросов подымающихся в этой области, что обеспечит непосредственный обмен информацией о проводимых опытах в различном социально-экономическом контексте.

(7) Учитывая комплексный и многосторонний характер проблемы новых форм высшего образования, на Симпозиуме следовало бы ограничиться обсуждением нескольких первоочередных тем, представляющих интерес для большинства стран.

(8) Согласно документу озаглавленному "Главные темы дискуссий", предлагается обсудить следующие темы :

1. Определение "новых форм высшего образования"; элементы типологии этих форм; происхождение и развитие новых структур и описание их особенностей на основании нескольких показательных примеров из различных стран Европы;

2. Структурные, функциональные и педагогические отношения между новыми формами высшего образования и учебными заведениями традиционного типа;

3. Влияние новых форм учебных заведений на социальную мобильность.

(9) Настоящий рабочий документ дает основу для обсуждений, в силу чего вышеприведенные три темы будут последовательно рассмотрены. Желательно, чтобы при обсуждениях на Симпозиуме главное внимание уделялось конкретным и фактическим аспектам вопроса новых форм, будущей деятельности Европейского Центра в этой области, и наконец, сотрудничеству которое можно будет развить в этой области между заинтересованными организациями различных стран.

I. Определение и критерии классификации "новых форм" высшего образования

(10) Вопрос определения новых форм в основном носит теоретический характер; однако, он представляет так же и некоторый практический интерес в связи с работами по документации и изучению, которые следует провести в области развития высшего образования в Европе в течение последних лет.

(11) Говоря о новых формах предполагается, что будет дано их определение или по крайней мере перечислены основные характеристики форм обучения, которые можно рассматривать как традиционные. Эти характеристики являются, повидимому, следующими :

В высшем образовании традиционного типа (даже в тех случаях когда речь идет о послелицейском неуниверситетском образовании), обучается молодежь от 18-ти до 24-х лет, окончившая среднее образование, главное и исключительное занятие которой это продолжение учебных занятий. С другой стороны, для этого традиционного образования характерно то, что оно осуществляется в определенные сроки, за исключением случаев повторения курса из за неуспехов в учебе или по каким либо другим причинам,

или сопряжено с определенным циклом экзаменов. По истечении этого срока и/или после успешной сдачи экзаменов в конце известного периода постоянного обучения, студенту выдается диплом, присуждается ученая степень или, наконец, какое либо другое учебное свидетельство. В результате чего обучение в учебных заведениях считается законченным.

(12) Эти общие и хорошо известные характеристики высшего образования традиционного типа приводят к некоторым неизбежным последствиям, как с социальной точки зрения, так и в отношении самой концепции передачи знаний.

(а) С социальной точки зрения, категория населения имеющая возможность воспользоваться высшим образованием традиционного типа, состоит из студентов не вступивших в активную жизнь и не имеющих профессионального заработка. Следовательно, речь идет о лицах не отягощенных семейными обязательствами, которые либо принадлежат к состоятельному классу населения, либо получают стипендии от государства для покрытия собственных нужд. Учитывая, что высшее образование традиционного типа подразумевает, кроме этого, относительно частый контакт между преподавателями и студентами (см. ниже п.б), преподавательский состав как таковой строго ограничен и состоит в основном из профессионистов, единственным или главным занятием которых является преподавание в высших учебных заведениях и университетах.

(б) С другой стороны, высшее образование традиционного типа, осуществляемое в определенные сроки на основании постоянной программы обучения, предусматривает передачу относительно ограниченной суммы знаний; любое усовершенствование или продолжение обучения и приобретение знаний по получении диплома, могут быть осуществлены только по личной инициативе бывшего студента. Это образование предназначенное для лиц преследующих определенную цель, осуществляется так же постоянным обучением определенного срока и передачей знаний главным образом посредством контакта преподаватели/обучающиеся (курсы, семинары), в иных случаях с дополнительной работой в библиотеке или лаборатории.

(13) Было бы опрометчиво огульно отрицать пользу форм обучения именуемых традиционными и, без предварительного анализа, рассматривать их как формы неспособные, в существующем европейском контексте, выполнять предписанные высшему образованию функции. Однако, все очевиднее выступает тот факт, что высшее образование традиционного типа не может больше, по крайней мере исключительно собственными силами, обеспечить всю совокупность заданий по обучению и подготовке "третьей степени". В подтверждение этой несостоятельности, часто приводится общее явление "массификации" высшего образования. По этому поводу следует отметить, однако, что если численность студентов стихийно возросла после второй мировой войны во всех странах Европы, то темпы этого роста сильно упали за последние несколько лет. И даже теперь, в высшие учебные заведения поступает меньшинство, а иногда и сравнительно низкое меньшинство по сравнению с соответствующим возрастным классом населения - факт наблюдающийся даже в высоко развитых промышленных странах. Это явление указывает повидимому на то, что необходимость обновления традиционных форм обучения продиктована в действительности более глубокими причинами. Действительные при-

чины следовало бы искать скорее, с одной стороны, в известных преобразованиях социального порядка, а с другой стороны - в быстрых темпах развития знаний как таковых.

(14) В отношении социального контекста, в течение последних десятилетий наблюдается общее поднятие жизненного уровня, так же как и увеличение свободного времени в слоях населения занятых профессиональной работой. Кроме этого, некоторые должности или профессии, в прошлом чисто технические или ручного труда, постепенно приобрели более интеллектуальный характер в результате массивного внедрения новых технологий, как например, электроника, информатика или автоматика, которые приводят рабочего в прямое соприкосновение с определенными областями прикладной и даже теоретической науки. В результате этого, все более широкие слои населения, которые не могли, да и не хотели до настоящего времени воспользоваться высшим образованием, теперь выражают желание учиться и располагают для этого личными денежными средствами. Кроме этого, постепенное затушевывание точных границ между интеллектуальным трудом и некоторыми упомянутыми выше типами технического и ручного труда вызывают не только желание учиться у рабочих, но и объективную социальную нужду увеличить численность лиц, знания которых соответствуют высшей подготовке. Наконец, следует добавить, что увеличение свободного времени пробуждает в человеке желание развить свои знания в областях науки часто не представляющих прямого технического интереса, что станет доступным в будущем; этим объясняется повидимому непрерывно растущий наплыв студентов желающих изучать гуманитарные и социальные науки.

(15) Как это известно, темпы развития знаний существенно изменились за последние 50 лет. Эфемерность приобретенных знаний усиливается, как в научной области, так и в области социальных наук. Везде появляются новые области наук. Уже вошло в привычку ссылаться на деятельности требующие полидисциплинарную подготовку или на появления междисциплинарных проблематик, приводящих в соприкосновение области знания не имевшие в прошлом ничего общего (математика и гуманитарные науки; химия-физика и археология; медицинская психология и история литературы и т.д.).

(16) В результате этих различных преобразований, основные характеристики форм традиционного образования подвержат пересмотру. В первую очередь, кажется невозможным удержать как единные формы высшего образования, учебные заведения, которые по своей структуре и даже методам, отрывают известное количество студентов от их профессионального занятия или от уже созданного или семейного очага, в течение непрерывного и иногда очень длинного периода времени. Кроме этого, подтверждается тот факт, что все больше и больше затруднений встречается при специальном или даже интеллектуальном обучении в широком смысле слова, в течение определенного периода времени и на основании жестких программ обучения, не давая возможности обучающимся систематически прикладывать на практике приобретенные знания.

(17) Так, в Европе, наблюдается общее стремление освободиться от этих ограничений путем создания учебных заведений, позволяющих, с одной стороны, расширить или превозмочь социальные ограничения традиционной "студенческой аудитории", а с другой стороны, придать больше гибкости старым учебным заведениям и преобразовать таким образом, чтобы их структура и программы обучения в большей степени учитывали

развитие знаний. Добиваться указанных целей можно при помощи ряда мероприятий, двойственного характера : с одной стороны, делаются попытки придать больше гибкости жесткой календарной схеме старых учебных заведений, а именно разрешив отрывы и возобновление занятий, или применяя "модулярное" фракционирование; с другой стороны, вводятся преобразования в учебных заведениях или технического характера, позволяющие студентам продолжать занятия не требуя их личного присутствия на курсах высшего образования. Очевидно, что мероприятия такого рода предполагают изменение программ и планов обучения, а также и определения областей специального обучения, что можно, впрочем, осуществить так же и в учебных заведениях классического типа. Эти мероприятия приведут, среди прочего, к преобразованиям в самом преподавательском составе, вследствие того, что преподавание не будет больше исключительным достоянием лиц, деятельность которых связана с постоянным присутствием на работе в учебных заведениях высшего образования.

(18) На основании вышеприведенных соображений и в противопоставление с традиционными формами, можно предложить предварительное определение "новых форм", предназначенное в основном для ограничения выбора областей изучения. Это определение может охватить формы учебных заведений, созданных для того чтобы :

(а) позволить новой студенческой аудитории воспользоваться высшим образованием;

(б) позволить использовать время обучения иным образом чем в учебных заведениях традиционного типа, для того чтобы открыть пути к параллельному или периодическому выполнению (в течение дня, года, более длинных периодов времени или даже в течение всей профессиональной карьеры) учебных занятий вне курсов высшего образования, независимо от того существует ли связь между этими занятиями и учебной программой.

(в) разрешить прибегнуть, в качестве преподавателей, к специалистам главное занятие которых находится вне университетских рамок.

(19) По установлении этих критериев, типологическая классификация как таковая, должна послужить только для чисто практических целей, как например : сбор и классификации документации, а так же определение тем для изучений в связи с новыми формами. Несмотря на то, что можно было бы предложить и другие параметры, полагаем что будет полезнее ограничиться указанными данными в документе симпозиума озаглавленном "Главные темы дискуссий", а именно :

(а) профессиональная ориентировка в противопоставлении с ориентировкой по областям обучения;

(б) уровень высшего образования, которому соответствуют различные новые структуры : исключительно кратковременные циклы, полный цикл вплоть до первой университетской степени; послеуниверситетский цикл;

(в) место отводимое заочным курсам, соответствующие методы и техника.

II. Отношения между новыми формами высшего образования и учебными заведениями традиционного типа

(20) Этот вопрос несомненно представляет собой главную проблему для будущего высшего образования в Европе. В упрощенной форме его можно сформулировать в следующем виде : призваны ли новые формы заместить традиционные учебные заведения или же, наоборот, они представляют собой просто дополнительные или параллельные системы, предназначенные для устранения явных недостатков учебных заведений унаследованных от прошлого ?

(21) В этом направлении стремления европейских стран еще не ясны. Так, например в Соединенном Королевстве, сосуществование политехнических заведений ("Polytechnics") и университетов породило систему двойственного характера, еще более усложненную существованием "Open University". Во Франции так же существует сложная система, включающая целый ряд учебных заведений, начиная наиболее традиционными и кончая самыми новаторскими. В других странах, университеты повидимому, не были затронуты преобразованиями последних десятилетий и работают параллельно с новыми инициативами - преимущественно правительственного происхождения - старающимися внедрить более гибкие формы обучения. Так, в Венгрии, опыты проведенные в области инженерного обучения, повидимому откроют путь к более широким преобразованиям, по крайней мере в некоторых областях обучения. В СССР, система очень сложно разветвляющаяся старых учебных заведений высшего образования сосуществует с заводскими высшими техническими учебными заведениями (Завод ВТУЗ).

(22) Что касается администрация, отношения не менее сложные. Так например, в некоторых случаях, формы заочных курсов находятся под руководством учебных заведений традиционного университетского типа, в других случаях заочные курсы полностью независимы от старых структур даже с административной и финансовой точки зрения. Однако, по-видимому, здесь не идет речь о характеристик определяющих преобразования, т.к. способы администрации обусловлены зачастую структурой государственного аппарата, степенью автономности университетов или какими либо другими факторами.

(23) Обе крайние гипотезы отношений между новыми формами и учебными заведениями традиционного типа, следует по-видимому отбросить.

(a) Так, гипотеза согласно которой новые формы предназначены для того чтобы заменить старые формы и как таковые представляют собой будущее всей системы высшего образования, не может быть принята. Такого рода мышление распространенное в кругах занимающихся теоретическими вопросами и развитием образования, не только что встречает оппозицию (зачастую основанную на принципиальном консерватизме) многочисленного университетского состава, который первый пострадает, но и, кроме этого, выпускает из виду некоторые реальные положения будущего которые уже намечаются. Отбросив постулат резкой "деколаризации", что конечно утопично, можно утверждать, что будущие поколения пройдут в Европе, так же вероятно как и в других местах, через этапы начального и среднего образования, более гибкого, модернизированного и демократизированного, но которое оста-

нется однако главным методом обучения огромного большинства молодежи. По окончании этих двух основных циклов обучения, большая часть молодежи естественно захочет продолжать учиться и получить высшее образование; это желание впрочем будет соответствовать соображениям экономического характера и требованиям планирования практикуемого в большей части стран. Отсюда следует, что система обучения, при которой будут сохранены заведения с постоянными курсами и обучением групп сравнительно молодых учащихся совершенно неизбежна еще в течение многих десятилетей.

(б) Противоположная гипотеза, согласно которой университеты или другие высшие учебные заведения высшего образования не должны быть подвергнуты никаким преобразованиям, а просто пополнены народными университетами или же какими либо другими дополнительными учебными заведениями, позволяющими разрешить некоторые вопросы обучения взрослого населения, так же мало убедительна. Она приведет в действительности к некоторому наслоению системы, которая разделится на "благородную" ветвь, пользующуюся высоким интеллектуальным и социальным престижем и "младшую" ветвь, лишенную настоящего престижа и представляющую мало привлекательности в отношении как рынка труда, так и качества получаемых знаний. Эту опасность следует подчеркнуть, т.к. она уже наблюдается в некоторых странах света.

(24) В этих условиях, самый подходящий вариант будет повидимому состоять в том, чтобы с одной стороны сделать более гибкой университетскую систему и другие учебные заведения высшего образования традиционного типа, в частности позволив им расчленить период обучения, по меньшей мере в необязательном порядке, и модернизировать свои методы и программы обучения путем внесения разнообразия, а с другой стороны создать или сохранить сугубо новаторские учебные заведения открытые для лиц уже начавших активную профессиональную деятельность и обеспечивающие продолжение высшего образования при помощи модулей достаточных как таковые, но поддающихся подразделению или пополнению в течение периодов обучения различного срока, и наконец, прибегать к помощи высоко компетентных лиц вне традиционного преподавательского состава. Кроме этого, какой бы то ни была административная связь существующая между старыми и новыми формами является повидимому существенным тот факт, что бы никакое престижное препятствие не разделяло бы эти два типа учебных заведений и чтобы переход от одного к другому был всегда возможен, по меньшей мере на известных этапах программы обучения. При таком понимании системы, можно будет устранить всякое соперничество за престиж между традиционным обучением и обучением полученным в новых учебных заведениях и одновременно уравнять их шансы в отношении рынка труда.

(25) Вышеприведенные общие соображения найдут несомненно весьма различное применение в зависимости от степени и методов планирования, особенностей автономности учебных заведений и университетов, а так же от структурных различий зависящих от экономического и социального уровня различных стран. Несмотря на это, речь идет о требованиях повидимому основных и общих для большинства промышленных Государств, а так же и для некоторых стран в стадии развития.

(26) Однако, можно утверждать, что между обеими системами, ставшими взаимопроницаемыми и все более близкими, сохранятся большие различия на некоторых ступенях программы обучения или же в некоторых специальностях. На высоких уровнях послеуниверситетской подготовки к научно-исследовательским работам, или же в областях обучения требующих систематическое усердие и много времени на работы в лаборатории или в госпиталях и других учреждениях, в силу необходимости, обучение будет производиться по старой академической "традиционной" системе, несколько измененной с организационной точки зрения, в связи с преобразованиями проведенными в самой области обучения. Существенным является не преобразование, какой бы то ни было ценой, системы обучения на этом уровне, а обеспечение доступа к образованию всем, включая и тех, которые обучаются в учебных заведениях нового типа.

II. Влияние новых форм учебных заведений на социальную мобильность

(27) Во второй главе сделана попытка оценить возможное влияние учебных заведений нового типа на будущее действительное развитие систем высшего образования. В этой, третьей части настоящей работы, рассматриваются какие именно сдвиги могут вызвать эти новые формы в обществе среди которого они будут функционировать.

(28) В этом отношении, статистические данные почти отсутствуют. Так, если даже и имеются некоторые справочные данные о составе студентов с точки зрения их профессионального происхождения, в некоторых учебных заведениях как например "Open University", то эти данные могут иметь значение только в случае, если их можно приложить к профессиональному составу всей страны в целом и сопоставить с положением существовавшим до появления этих учебных заведений новой формы. Имеющиеся статистические данные мало что отражают в этом отношении; за исключением некоторых социалистических стран, процентные цифры указывающие на пропорциональное количество студентов обучающихся в учебных заведениях нового типа относительно низкие, а вариации их сами по себе мало значительны. Совершенно ясно, что в этой области необходимо провести систематическую статистическую работу, которая несомненно много даст; эта работа потребует однако много времени для того чтобы можно было выявить основные характеристики преобразований на национальном уровне.

(29) На настоящем этапе, представляется существенным взвесить какие перспективы открывают эти новые формы по мнению активного населения, создается ли у него впечатление что они открывают путь к большей мобильности, какие именно стремления они пробуждают, а так же какие сдвиги они вызовут к более открытому обществу, без жестких профессиональных ограничений и без искусственного сепаратизма между рабочими ручного труда и техниками с одной стороны, и интеллектуальными работниками, с другой. Возможно, что самым главным является эта большая социальная мобильность обеспечивающая возможность всем обладающим необходимыми способностями воспользоваться высшим образованием.

(30) Выгода роста социальной мобильности, или по крайней мере сознания возможности такой возросшей мобильности, совершенно очевидна. Однако, небезынтересно проверить ее последствия в особенности в отношении стоимости финансирования системы образования в целом, и высшего образования в частности. Изучения в этом направлении следовало бы проводить прилагая усилия чтобы расширить эту проблему переходя за рамки простых умозаключений кратковременного экономического характера. Действительно, не подлежит сомнению тот факт, что в более близком или отдаленном будущем, повышение профессионального уровня и народный расцвет, вызванные внедрением и развитием новых форм высшего образования, приведут не только к явным социально-политическим преимуществам, но и к повышению качества и производительности труда, параллельно с тем что принято называть жизненным уровнем.

PART I : ANNEXES

PARTIE I : ANNEXES

ПЕРВАЯ ЧАСТЬ : ПРИЛОЖЕНИЯ

ANNEX I

GENERAL INFORMATION NOTE

I. SUBJECT AND PURPOSE

1. In accordance with the recommendations of the second Conference of Ministers of Education of European Member States (Bucharest, 26 November - 3 December 1973) and with agreement of the Advisory Committee of the European Centre for Higher Education, a Symposium on new forms of higher education will be held at the Centre, in Bucharest, from 13 to 15 January 1976 (category VIII).

The importance of this problem in most European countries is nowadays widely acknowledged. But despite the many studies and discussions, both national and international, to which it has given rise in recent years, the experiments that have been or are being carried out in certain countries generally seem to be unfamiliar or misunderstood outside national frontiers. In view of the complexity of the problems involved in adapting centuries-old structures to the economic and social demands of the modern world, it would appear to have become increasingly urgent to engage in joint consideration and the mutual exchange of information on the widest possible basis on this subject.

2. Thus the purpose of the Symposium is to exchange views and experiences on the proposed topic and to identify the most significant factors which may be of interest to the officials and administrators in charge of higher education in Europe. In addition, the meeting might result in the formulation of specific proposals in regard to various possible fields for co-operation, such as the collection of documentation and the exchange of information. It might also investigate the most appropriate ways of bringing about concerted action in developing the new forms of higher education.

II. FIELD OF STUDY

3. With regard to the field of study, it would be useful, in order to delimit the scope of the discussion, to adopt specific criteria on the basis of which it is possible to determine what are the new forms of higher education in Europe. Thus from an institutional standpoint the forms to be discussed will be :

(a) those which allow a new student population [x] to enter higher education;

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x i.e. groups other than the traditional population which is composed of young people from 18 to 24 years old who have completed secondary education and are not employed.

(b) those which allow the student to spend the period of study in a different way to that spent in an institution of the traditional kind, thus permitting parallel or part-time engagement (during the day, the year, or over longer periods, or even throughout the professional career) in activities other than higher studies, regardless of whether these activities are linked with the studies in question;

(c) those which make it possible to use as teachers specialists whose chief occupation lies outside the university framework.

4. If these criteria are adopted, two remarks are called for :

(a) attention should be turned primarily to institutions in which all three criteria are fulfilled at one and the same time, though for study and discussion purposes institutional forms in which only one of these criteria is met, or is at least on the way towards being met, should also be considered; however, too much time should not be devoted to very isolated or short-lived experiments;

(b) to help keep the discussion within precise bounds, retraining courses and those forms of advanced career training for graduates which have already become more or less traditional should be left out of account.

5. Consideration of the institutions identified by means of these criteria raises numerous questions which could be examined at a series of symposia. Here, for example, are a number of possible items for study :

(a) the origin of these new forms;

(b) the preparation of a simple classification of the institutional structures falling within the field defined by the above-mentioned criteria and actual case studies with reference to specific experiences;

(c) structural, functional and pedagogical relationships between the new forms and conventional higher education;

(d) a quantitative breakdown, by country or sub-region, of the new institutional forms, indicating their number and the number of persons participating in some capacity in their work;

(e) the relationship between the instruction provided in the new institutional forms and vocational training;

(f) the influence of the institutional features of these new forms on the content and methods of education;

(g) new courses and introduction of multidisciplinary study cycles;

(h) impact of the new institutional forms from the standpoint of social mobility;

(i) dropout problems in connection with the new forms of higher education;

(j) problem of the student/teacher ratio in the new forms of higher education;

(k) specific forms of administration, management and financing in the new-style institutions;

(l) influence of the new organizational forms on the unit cost of education;

(m) evaluation of the new forms of higher education.

III. CONTRIBUTIONS BY PARTICIPANTS AND ORGANIZATION OF THE SYMPOSIUM

6. The Symposium will be attended by a dozen or so principal participants from the European region. They will be selected mainly from academic staff and administrative personnel in the field of higher education and invited by the Director-General of Unesco in their personal capacity. The total number of participants, including a few observers and members of the Unesco Secretariat, will be about twenty.

7. The principal participants will be asked to prepare a short paper on the subject of the Symposium, taking into account the main themes of discussion proposed (ED-76/CONF.805/2). They will be asked to concentrate on the latest developments in the new forms of higher education in their respective countries and on their own experience in that respect. They will also be asked to provide any documentation they may possess which could be of use to the Symposium in its work.

A N N E X E I

NOTE GENERALE D'INFORMATION

I. OBJET ET BUT

1. Conformément aux recommandations de la Deuxième Conférence des ministres de l'éducation des Etats européens membres de l'Unesco (Bucarest, 26 novembre - 3 décembre 1973) et sur avis favorable du Comité consultatif du Centre européen pour l'enseignement supérieur, un Colloque sur les nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur aura lieu au Centre, à Bucarest, du 13 au 15 janvier 1976 (catégorie VIII).

On connaît aujourd'hui l'importance que revêt ce problème dans la plupart des pays d'Europe. Malgré les nombreuses études et discussions, tant au niveau national qu'international, auxquelles il a donné lieu au cours des dernières années, il semble que les expériences déjà effectuées ou en voie de réalisation dans certains pays demeurent le plus souvent mal connues ou comprises au-delà des frontières nationales.
Etant donné la complexité des problèmes que pose l'adaptation de structures séculaires aux nécessités tant économiques que sociales du monde actuel, il semble qu'une réflexion commune et une information mutuelle aussi complète que possible en cette matière, s'avèrent une exigence de plus en plus impérative.

2. Le but du Colloque est donc de procéder à un échange de vues et d'expériences sur le thème proposé et d'en dégager les données les plus significatives, susceptibles d'intéresser les responsables et les administrateurs de l'enseignement supérieur en Europe. La réunion pourrait aboutir, par ailleurs, à la formulation de propositions concrètes en ce qui concerne divers domaines de coopération possibles, tels que la collecte de documentation et l'échange d'information; il pourrait rechercher, d'autre part, les voies les meilleures qui permettraient d'aboutir à une action concertée dans le développement des nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur.

II. CHAMP DE L'ETUDE

3. En ce qui concerne le <u>champ</u> de l'étude, il convient de retenir, pour fixer des limites à la discussion, certains critères qui permettent de déterminer les nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur en Europe.
On retiendra ainsi les formes institutionnelles qui

(a) permettent à <u>une clientèle estudiantine nouvelle</u> [x] de bénéficier de l'enseignement supérieur;

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x En dehors de la clientèle traditionnelle, c'est-à-dire les jeunes de 18 à 24 ans, ayant passé par l'enseignement secondaire et n'exerçant pas d'activités professionnelles.

(b) permettent d'utiliser le temps d'étude autrement que dans les institutions de type traditionnel, ouvrant ainsi la voie à la poursuite parallèle ou intermittente (dans la journée, dans l'année, au cours de périodes plus longues, ou même dans la carrière professionnelle tout entière) d'activités autres que la participation aux études supérieures, que ces activités soient ou non en liaison avec les études poursuivies;

(c) permettent d'avoir recours, en tant qu'enseignants, à des spécialistes dont l'occupation principale se situe en dehors du cadre universitaire.

4. L'adoption de ces critères appellerait deux remarques:

(a) il convient de tenir compte en premier lieu des institutions dans lesquelles ces trois critères sont à la fois présents; cependant, du point de vue de l'étude et de la discussion, les formes institutionnelles dans lesquelles un seulement de ces critères est réalisé ou est du moins en voie de réalisation doivent être prises en considération également; on se gardera cependant de s'attarder sur des expériences trop isolées ou éphémères;

(b) pour permettre de maintenir la discussion dans des limites nettes, il conviendrait d'exclure du domaine les cours de recyclage et les formes d'ores et déjà plutôt traditionnelles du perfectionnement professionnel, destinées à des personnes disposant déjà d'une formation supérieure.

5. L'étude des institutions que ces critères permettent d'identifier soulève de nombreuses questions qui pourraient être étudiées à l'occasion de divers colloques. A titre indicatif, nous en relèverons ici quelques aspects:

(a) origine des formes nouvelles;

(b) élaboration d'une typologie simple des formations institutionnelles rentrant dans le domaine défini par les critères ci-dessus précisés et études de cas concrets avec référence aux expériences spécifiques;

(c) relations structurelles, fonctionnelles et pédagogiques entre les formes nouvelles et l'enseignement supérieur traditionnel;

(d) importance quantitative, par pays ou par sous-régions, des formes institutionnelles nouvelles, tant par leur nombre même que par le nombre de personnes qui, à un titre ou à un autre, participent à leur travail;

(e) relations entre l'enseignement délivré dans les nouvelles formes institutionnelles et la formation de caractère professionnel;

(f) influence des particularités institutionnelles de ces formes nouvelles sur le contenu et les méthodes de l'enseignement;

(g) nouvelles filières et mise en place des cycles d'études pluridisciplinaires;

(h) portée de l'introduction des formes institutionnelles nouvelles du point de vue de la mobilité sociale;

(i) problèmes de la déperdition du point de vue des nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur;

(j) problème du rapport étudiant/enseignant dans les nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur;

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(k) formes spécifiques d'administration, de gestion et de financement des institutions de type nouveau;

(l) influence des nouvelles formes organisationnelles sur le coût unitaire de l'enseignement délivré;

(m) évaluation des nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur.

III. CONTRIBUTIONS DES PARTICIPANTS ET ORGANISATION

6. Le Colloque réunira une douzaine de participants principaux en provenance de la région européenne. Ces participants, choisis pour la plupart parmi le personnel académique et les cadres administratifs de l'enseignement supérieur, seront invités par le Directeur général de l'Unesco, à titre personnel. Le nombre total des participants, incluant également quelques observateurs et les membres du Secrétariat de l'Organisation, s'élèvera à 20 environ.

7. Les participants principaux sont invités à fournir un bref exposé écrit sur le sujet du Colloque, en se référant aux thèmes de discussion proposés (ED-75/CONF.805/2). Ils mettront principalement l'accent sur les développements les plus récents des nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur dans leurs pays respectifs et sur l'expérience qu'ils auraient personnellement acquise en la matière. Ils fourniront, en outre, la documentation dont ils disposent et qu'ils jugeront utile aux travaux de la réunion.

ПРИЛОЖЕНИЕ I

ОБЩАЯ ИНФОРМАЦИЯ

I. ПРЕДМЕТ И ЦЕЛЬ

1. В соответствии с рекомендациями второй конференции министров образования европейских государств-членов ЮНЕСКО (Бухарест, 26 ноября - 3 декабря 1973 г.) и с одобрения консультативного комитета Европейского Центра по высшему образованию, с 13 по 15 января 1976 г. в Европейском Центре по высшему образованию в Бухаресте будет проведен симпозиум новых форм высшего образования (категория УП).

В настоящее время в большинстве европейских стран осознается важность этой задачи. Несмотря на многочисленные исследования и обсуждения как на национальном, так и на международном уровнях, которые проводились в течение последних лет, создается впечатление, что за пределами национальных границ зачастую плохо знают или понимают эксперименты, проведенные или проводимые в некоторых странах. Учитывая сложность задач, которые возникают в связи с адаптацией веками существующих структур к требованиям современности как экономического, так и социального порядка, представляется, что в этой области все более насущной становится проблема совместных обсуждений и обобщенной информации в наиболее полной форме.

2. Таким образом, целью этого симпозиума является обмен мнениями и опытом по предложенной теме и уточнение наиболее значительных данных, которые могут представить интерес для административных работников и сотрудников, ответственных за высшее образование в странах Европы. Кроме того, эта встреча могла бы привести к выработке конкретных предложений в отношении различных областей возможного сотрудничества, например, обор документов и обмен информацией; вместе с тем можно было бы изыскать наилучшие пути выработки согласованных действий в области развития новых форм высшего образования.

II. СФЕРА ИССЛЕДОВАНИЙ

3. Что касается сферы исследований, то для определения границ обсуждения следует принять во внимание некоторые критерии, которые позволят установить новые формы высшего образования в странах Европы. Таким образом, можно было бы учесть новые организационные формы, которые

(a) позволят новой студенческой аудитории[X] пользоваться благами высшего образования;

[X] Помимо традиционной аудитории, т.е. молодежи от 18 до 24 лет, получившей среднее образование и не занимающейся профессиональной деятельностью.

(б) позволять использовать учебное время иным способом, чем это принято в учреждениях традиционного типа, тем самым открывая путь для параллельной или частичной (в течение дня, года, более длительного периода или даже в течение всей профессиональной карьеры) деятельности помимо прохождения курса в высшем учебном заведении, независимо от того, связана ли эта деятельность с проходимым курсом;

(в) позволят использовать в качестве преподавателей, специалистов, основная деятельность которых протекает вне университетской сферы.

4. Принятие этих критериев вызвало бы два замечания :

(а) в первую очередь следует учитывать институты, которые удовлетворяют одновременно этим трем критериям; однако, с точки зрения изучения и обсуждения, организационные формы в которых реализован или по крайней мере находится в процессе реализации лишь один из этих критериев, также должны быть приняты во внимание; не следует, однако, задерживаться на слишком изолированных или эфемерных экспериментах;

(б) для того чтобы обсуждение протекало в четких рамках, следовало бы исключить из области обсуждения курсы переподготовки и уже ставшие более или менее традиционными формы профессионального усовершенствования предназначенные для людей, имеющих высшее образование.

5. В связи с изучением институтов удовлетворяющих этим критериям встают многочисленные вопросы, которые могли бы быть изучены на различных симпозиумах. Для примера мы укажем здесь несколько аспектов :

(а) происхождение новых форм;

(б) выработка несложной типологии организационных форм, входящих в область, определенную вышеустановленными точными критериями и изучение конкретных случаев со ссылкой на специфический опыт;

(в) взаимоотношения структурного, функционального и педагогического порядка между новыми формами и традиционным высшим образованием;

(г) количественные показатели по странам или субрегионам для новых организационных форм, с указанием как их числа, так и численности работников, занятых в том или ином качестве в этих учреждениях;

(д) взаимосвязь между обучением, предоставляемым в новых организационных формах, и профессиональной подготовкой;

(е) влияние, оказываемое своеобразием этих новых организационных форм на содержание и методы обучения;

(ж) новые профили подготовки и введение циклов многодисциплинарных занятий;

(з) значение введения новых организационных форм с точки зрения социальной мобильности;

(и) проблемы отсева с точки зрения новых организационных форм высшего образования;

(к) вопрос о соотношении числа учащихся и преподавателей в новых формах высшего образования;

(л) специфические формы администрирования, управления и финансирования учебных заведений нового типа;

(м) влияние новых организационных форм на унитарную стоимость предоставляемого образования;

(н) оценка новых форм высшего образования.

III. ВКЛАД УЧАСТНИКОВ И ОРГАНИЗАЦИЯ РАБОТЫ СИМПОЗИУМА

6. На симпозиуме соберется около десятка основных участников, представляющих страны европейского региона. Участники будут подобраны, главным образом из числа профессорско-преподавательского состава и административных работников системы высшего образования, и они будут приглашены Генеральным директором ЮНЕСКО участвовать в личном качестве. Общее число участников, включая также нескольких наблюдателей и членов Секретариата ЮНЕСКО, достигнет примерно 20 человек.

7. Основным участникам симпозиума предложено представить краткий письменный доклад по теме симпозиума, исходя из различных указанных выше пунктов для обсуждения. Основное внимание они уделят самым последним достижениям в области новых форм высшего образования в своих странах, а также личному накопленному в этой связи опыту. Кроме того, они представят имеющуюся в их распоряжении документацию, которую они сочтут полезной для работы этого симпозиума.

A N N E X II

MAIN TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Definition of "new forms of higher education"; principles for classifying these forms; origin and development of new structures and description of their specific nature, on the basis of typical examples in various European countries.

   (a) On the question of definition, those taking part in the Symposium will consider the question as to whether the criteria formulated in this respect in the "General information note" (ED-76/CONF.805/1) are acceptable. These criteria are as follows :

   (i) Do the new forms allow a new student population [x] to enter higher education ?

   (ii) Do they allow the student to spend the period of study in a different way from that spent in an institution of the traditional kind, thus permitting parallel or part-time engagement (during the day, the year, or over longer periods, or even throughout the professional career) in activities other than higher studies, regardless of whether these activities are linked with the studies in question ?

   (iii) Do they make it possible to use as teachers specialists whose chief occupation lies outside the university framework ?

   It will be noted that these criteria are concerned primarily with the sociological aspect of new forms (student population, teaching staff, professional structures). Using these criteria as a starting point, their technical and methodological aspects (television courses, correspondence courses, etc.) might be considered as derived characteristics of the new forms.

   A question to be decided is whether the three criteria (i) - (iii) should be considered as a whole, or whether structures which meet only one of the criteria should nevertheless be included in the field of study.

   Care should be taken, however, to ensure that discussion on the definition of the new forms, which will inevitably be somewhat terminological in nature, is regarded as no more than an introduction to the Symposium and does not encroach unduly on the time available for the real work of the meeting.

   (b) Determining the principles and constituents of classification should in any case be regarded as a practical exercise. A list of categories should be drawn up for the documentation aspect of the classification of data

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x i.e. groups other than the traditional population, which is composed of young people from 18 to 24 years old who have completed secondary education and are not employed.

relating to new forms, and for subsequent analysis of data in studies undertaken as a follow-up to the work of the Symposium. The classification criteria might be as follows :

(i) vocational guidance as opposed to guidance according to subject;

(ii) the higher-education levels to which the various new structures correspond: short courses alone; complete courses up to first-degree level; post-graduate or post-university courses;

(iii) the place of "tele-education" and its methods and techniques.

(c) The main object in discussing the origins and development of new forms and describing their specific nature is to obtain specific information and to illustrate the discussions by reference to examples of experiments which have actually been carried out or are in the process of being carried out. This part of the discussion might well be incorporated into the discussion of items (a) and (b) above.

2. Structural, functional and educational relationships between new forms of higher education and conventional institutions.

This second topic is so complex that it will undoubtedly be possible to examine only certain aspects of it during the Symposium. A point to which particular attention will be paid is whether new forms constitute merely an extension of conventional institutions and are complementary to existing forms or whether, on the other hand, they represent the future shape of higher education in Europe and are destined gradually to replace the old forms.

Another question to be examined is how far the appearance of these new forms has its origin in the socio-econonic changes of recent years, the progressive extension of higher education to larger numbers of people and the inability of traditional structures to face up to new situations and new needs.

Finally, it would be of interest to consider whether, in view of their basic characteristics, these new forms are or will be capable of performing all the functions at present undertaken by traditional institutions, especially post-graduate training and training for research.

In short, the discussion of this item would be an examination of the effect that the establishment and extension of new forms would have on the internal development of higher education as a whole.

3. Impact of new forms of institution on social mobility.

Unlike item 2, this item calls for an examination of the external effect on the whole of society of the origin and development of new forms of higher education. In particular,an effort will be made to determine how far this new type of institution makes higher education available in practice to people whose social background, type of employment or age denied them access to it under a system exclusively composed of conventional institutions.

An analysis might also be made of the extent to which these new forms contribute to the establishment of a system of life-long education that would make higher education available to anyone with sufficient ability for it, regardless of difficulties relating to work, family or financial position.

A N N E X E II

PRINCIPAUX THEMES DE DISCUSSION

1. Définition des "nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur"; éléments d'une typologie de ces formes; origine et développement des nouvelles structures et description de leurs particularités sur la base de quelques exemples caractéristiques dans divers pays d'Europe.

   (a) En ce qui concerne la définition, les participants au Colloque examineront si les critères évoqués à cet égard dans la "Note générale d'information" (ED-76/CONF.805/1) paraissent acceptables. Les critères mentionnés sont les suivants :

   (i) permettre à une clientèle estudiantine nouvelle (1) de bénéficier de l'enseignement supérieur;

   (ii) permettre d'utiliser le temps d'étude autrement que dans les institutions de type traditionnel, ouvrant ainsi la voie à la poursuite parallèle ou intermittente (dans la journée, dans l'année, au cours de périodes plus longues, ou même dans la carrière professionnelle tout entière) d'activités autres que la participation aux études supérieures, que ces activités soient ou non en liaison avec les études poursuivies;

   (iii) permettre d'avoir recours, en tant qu'enseignants, à des spécialistes dont l'occupation principale se situe en dehors du cadre universitaire.

   On relèvera que ces critères portent essentiellement sur l'aspect sociologique des nouvelles formes (clientèle estudiantine, corps professoral, structures professionnelles). En partant de ces critères, on pourrait considérer comme caractéristiques dérivées de ces nouvelles formes, leurs aspects techniques et méthodologiques (enseignement par télévision, par correspondance, etc.).

   Le problème se pose de savoir si les trois critères (i)-(iii) doivent être considérés ensemble, ou si des structures qui ne réalisent qu'un seul de ces critères peuvent être néanmoins retenues dans le champ d'investigation.

   On veillera cependant à ce que les discussions relatives à la définition des nouvelles formes, qui revêtiront inévitablement un certain caractère terminologique, soient considérées comme une simple introduction au Colloque, et n'empiètent pas indûment sur le temps disponible pour les travaux proprement dits de la réunion.

   (b) La détermination des principes et des éléments d'une typologie sera considérée, par ailleurs, comme un exercice pratique. Il s'agira de préciser les catégories selon lesquelles les données relatives aux

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(1) En dehors de la clientèle traditionnelle, c.à.d. les jeunes de 18 à 24 ans, ayant passé par l'enseignement secondaire et n'exerçant pas d'activités professionnelles.

nouvelles formes pourraient être classées du point de vue de la documentation et analysées dans des études qui feraient suite aux travaux du Colloque. Les critères de classification pourraient être les suivants :

(i) l'orientation professionnelle par opposition à une orientation disciplinaire;

(ii) le niveau de l'enseignement supérieur auquel correspondent les différentes structures nouvelles: cycle court uniquement; cycle complet jusqu'au premier grade universitaire; cycle postgradué ou postuniversitaire;

(iii) la place de l'enseignement à distance et les méthodes et techniques qui s'y rapportent.

(c) La discussion sur les origines et le développement des nouvelles formes, ainsi que la description de leurs particularités est essentiellement destinée à fournir des éléments concrets et à illustrer les débats grâce à des exemples ayant déjà valeur d'expériences réalisées ou en cours de réalisation. Cette discussion pourrait d'ailleurs avoir lieu dans le cadre de l'examen des points (a) et (b) mentionnés ci-dessus.

2. Relations structurelles, fonctionnelles et pédagogiques entre les nouvelles formes de l'enseignement supérieur et les institutions de type traditionnel.

Etant donné la complexité de ce deuxième thème, il est certain que quelques aspects seulement pourront être examinés lors du Colloque. On s'interrogera en particulier sur le point de savoir si les nouvelles formes constituent une simple extension des institutions traditionnelles, venant compléter les formes déjà existantes, ou au contraire, si les nouvelles formes représentent en elles-mêmes, l'avenir de l'enseignement supérieur dans les pays européens et sont appelées à se substituer progressivement aux formes anciennes.
On examinera, par ailleurs, dans quelle mesure la création de ces nouvelles formes trouve son origine dans les transformations socio-économiques de ces dernières années, dans la "massification" progressive de l'enseignement supérieur et dans l'incapacité où se trouvent les structures traditionnelles de faire face à une situation et à des besoins nouveaux.

Il serait enfin intéressant d'étudier si les nouvelles formes, compte tenu de leurs caractéristiques essentielles, sont ou seront en mesure de remplir toutes les fonctions actuellement assumées par les institutions de type traditionnel, notamment la formation postgraduée et la préparation à la recherche.

En résumé, ce point de discussion consisterait à examiner la portée de la création et de l'extension des nouvelles formes sur le développement intrinsèque de l'enseignement supérieur dans sa totalité.

3. Impact des nouvelles formes institutionnelles sur la mobilité sociale.

Contrairement au point 2, il s'agirait d'examiner ici, la portée extrinsèque de l'origine et du développement des nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur, en ce qui concerne la société dans son ensemble. On étudiera, notamment, dans quelle mesure ces institutions de type nouveau ouvrent effectivement l'accès à l'enseignement supérieur, à des groupes sociaux, professionnels ou à des groupes d'âge qui ne pouvaient y prétendre dans un système exclusivement composé d'institutions de type traditionnel.

On pourrait analyser en outre, dans quelle mesure ces nouvelles formes contribuent à la mise en oeuvre d'une formation permanente, permettant à tous ceux qui en sont capables de bénéficier de l'enseignement supérieur, malgré des obstacles d'ordre professionnel, familial ou financier.

ПРИЛОЖЕНИЕ II

ГЛАВНЫЕ ТЕМЫ ДИСКУССИЙ

1. Определение "новых форм высшего образования"; элементы типологии этих форм; происхождение и развитие новых структур и описание их специфических особенностей с приведением нескольких характерных примеров в различных странах Европы.

   (а) В том что касается определения главных форм высшего образования, участники Симпозиума рассмотрят являются ли приемлемыми критерии указанные для этого в "Общей информации" (ED-76/CONF.805/1). Эти критерии следующие :

   (1) Разрешить новой студенческой аудитории[x] доступ к высшему образованию;

   (2) разрешить использование времени обучения иным образом, чем в учебных заведениях традиционного типа, открывая таким образом возможности к параллельному или периодическому выполнению (в течение дня, года, более продолжительных периодов или даже в течение всей профессиональной карьеры) учебных занятий вне курсов высшего образования, независимо от того существует ли или нет связь между этими занятиями и посещаемыми курсами;

   (3) разрешить прибегнуть к помощи, в качестве преподавателей, специалистов главное занятие которых находится вне университетских рамок.

   Следует отметить, что эти критерии касаются в основном социологических аспектов новых форм (студенческая аудитория, преподавательский состав, профессиональные структуры). Исходя из этих критериев можно рассматривать как характеристики вытекающие из этих новых форм, их технические и методологические аспекты (курсы по телевидению, заочные курсы и т.д.).

   Ставится вопрос следует ли рассматривать совместно все три критерия (1)-(3) или же можно включить в сферу изучений тай же и структуры учитывающие только один из этих критерий.

   Одновременно необходимо следить за тем, чтобы дискуссии по вопросу определения новых форм, которые в некоторой степени неизбежно примут терминологический характер, рассматривались бы просто как введение к Симпозиуму и не отнимали бы неоправданно время отведенное на основные работы собрания.

   (б) Определение принципов и элементов типологии следует рассматривать, как раз наоборот, как практическую тему. Следует уточнить категории данных о новых формах для группировки их с точки зрения документации и анализа в последующих Симпозиуму работах. Для классификации можно

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x) Кроме традиционной студенческой аудитории, т.е. молодежи от 18 до 24 лет, окончивней среднее образование и не имеющей профессионального занятия.

принять следующие критерии :

(1) профессиональная ориентировка в противопоставлении с ориентировкой по областям обучения;

(2) уровень высшего образования которому соответствуют различные новые структуры : исключительно кратковременные циклы, полный цикл вплоть до первой университетской степени, послеуниверситетский цикл;

(3) место отводимое заочным курсам, соответствующие методы и техника.

(в) Дискуссии о происхождении и развитии новых форм, а так же описание специфических их особенностей, предназначены, в основном, для получения конкретных данных и иллюстрирования дебатов при помощи примеров представляющих ценность как уже полученный опыт или примеров в стадии выполнения. Эти дискуссии могут, впрочем, проводиться при рассмотрении вышеприведенных пунктов (а) и (б).

2. Структурные, функциональные и педагогические отношения между новыми формами высшего образования и учебными заведениями традиционного типа.

Учитывая комплексный характер этой второй темы, совершено ясно, что на Симпозиуме удастся рассмотреть только некоторые из ее аспектов. В частности, следует обсудить что имено представляют собой новые формы высшего образования : просто продолжение традиционных учебных заведений, дополняющее уже существующие формы или же наоборот, эти новые формы, как таковые, представляют собой будущее высшего образования в Европейских странах, постепенно замещающее старые формы.

Следует рассмотреть так же в какой степени создание этих новых форм обусловлено социально-экономическими преобразованиями последних лет, постепенным приобщением массового характера высшему образованию и неспособностью традиционных структур справиться с новосоздавшимися положением и нуждами.

Наконец, учитывая основные характеристики новых форм, небезинтересно рассмотреть способны ли они теперь или будут ли способны в будущем выполнить все функции выполняемые в настоящее время учебными заведениями традиционного типа, в частности, послеуниверситетская подготовка и подготовка к исследовательским работам.

Коротко говоря, этот пункт дискуссий будет состоять в рассмотрении влияния которое окажет создание и внедрение новых форм на внутреннее развитие высшего образования в целом.

3. Влияние новых форм учебных заведений на социальную мобильность

В данном случае, в противоположность пункту 2, следует рассмотреть внешнее влияние происхождения и развития новых форм высшего образования на общество в целом. А именно, следует обсудить в какой степени эти учебные заведения нового типа действительно открывают путь к высшему образованию социальным группам, профессиональным или возрастным группам, доступ которым был закрыт в системе состоящей исключительно из учебных заведений традиционного типа.

Кроме этого, следовало бы обсудить в какой степени эти новые формы содействуют внедрению постоянного обучения позволяющего всем лицам способным на это воспользоваться высшим образованием, несмотря на препятствия профессионального, семейного или финансового характера.

A N N E X III A N N E X E III

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PART II : CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE PARTICIPANTS

PARTIE II : CONTRIBUTIONS DES PARTICIPANTS

ВТОРАЯ ЧАСТЬ : ВКЛАД УЧАСТНИКОВ

NEW FORMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN EUROPE: SOME REMARKS ON THE SWEDISH SITUATION

by Professor Gunnar Bergendal

1. The 1975 decision of Parliament on higher education

The Swedish tradition of social development is one of careful preparation in government commissions and various working groups, in dialogues between government and local and central authorities, and of open debate in newspapers, labour unions etc., giving a broad platform for the overall planning decisions to be taken by Parliament. Thus, in the gradual evolution of a complex structure such as higher education, its institutions, content and activities, and its impact on society and individuals, it is difficult or impossible to single out the time factor in terms of 'old' and 'new'. Any discussion on the present development of Swedish higher education has to take into account the decision of the 1975 Parliament on the future planning of higher education, the central issues of which will be implemented by July 1, 1977. Among the important changes will be a new set of rules for admission to higher education, a new institutional frame, based on a wide definition of the concept of higher education and including a new system of funding, and a policy for the regional distribution of the facilities of higher education.

The decision of Parliament is partly the confirmation of trends over the last ten years, e.g. in the co-operation of students and staff over the running of higher education institutions. It also creates new premises for future development, not least within the field to be discussed at the symposium in Bucharest. Thus "new forms" would mean, in the Swedish context, trends and plans, in some way or another connected with the general reform of higher education to be implemented in 1977. In consequence, of the three proposed topics for discussion, the third one, the impact on social mobility, can be treated only in a hypothetical way. Such empirical evidence that exists on social mobility connected with new forms of higher education refers to reform decisions of the 1950s and 1960s.

As a basis for the following discussion, three points should be made. The first one pertains to new groups of students. Traditionally admission to universities and colleges has required that the student had completed one of the theoretical 3 or 4-year study programmes of the upper secondary school (gymnasium). The capacity of these programmes corresponded in the 1960s to between one quarter and one third of a young age-group, and this set a limit for the age-groups of the population that universities and colleges were supposed to serve. As from 1969 less restrictive admission rules have been applied on an experimental basis to certain courses and educational programmes at the universities and colleges. From 1977 the entrance requirements to higher education will be formulated in terms of general and specific qualifications. The applicant will have to meet both of these.

The general qualifications for higher education will be defined as follows:-

(a) having completed upper secondary study of at least two years' duration including a prescribed minimum of Swedish and English
or

(b) having completed studies that are deemed equivalent or

(c) being 25 years old and having had at least 4 years of gainful employment (care of one's own children being counted as an equivalent).

Already under the two first conditions, more than half of the young age-group will qualify for higher education. Under the third condition, higher education is potentially made available to every citizen seeking qualified education and training.

The specific qualifications will be defined for each course or programme of higher education. For example, knowledge of mathematics, physics and chemistry corresponding to what is required in the 3 or 4-year upper secondary programmes of natural sciences or technology, will be required for higher studies in engineering. The schools provide opportunities for those adults who want to supplement previous studies by such courses.

The rules for selection of students to higher studies with restricted admission will be worked out so as to give factual opportunities of study to as broad a group of students as possible.

The second point to be made concerns the distribution of higher education and training in the life of the individual. There is a very definite trend for students to be older at the start of their university studies. Thus, patterns of recurrent education are already developing within the traditional university structure. The decision of Parliament takes the view that higher education should be looked upon as part of a life-long process of learning and personal development. This will affect every element in the planning of higher education, such as its content, working methods, location etc. The new rules of admission are an obvious part of this policy.

Thirdly, the reform decision refers to a very wide range of higher education. Not only traditional education at universities and colleges but all kinds of qualified training for adults, such as the training of nurses, directors of old people's homes, pre-school teachers and sea captains, will be included in the term "higher education". Only part of this field has a traditional connection with research. It is part of the policy that contacts with research should be developed for all kinds of higher education, although one is aware that this will take many years, probably decades, and that new forms of this contact will have to be considered.

As far as basic higher education is concerned, the organization of faculties will be replaced by a structure based on five occupational training sectors (1. technology, 2. economics, administration and social work, 3. medicine and nursing, 4. teaching, 5. culture and information). The studies will be organized in educational programmes, composed of modules (courses). The student will be able to apply for a whole programme or for a single course. This framework for the organization of studies is intended to promote contact between working life and higher studies, and to make higher education available to new groups of students.

In the following text some comments will be given under the headings of the working paper ED-76/CONF.805/3.

2. Definition of new forms of higher education

New content

Already the wider definition of the concept of higher education outlined above gives an important example of new forms. The inclusion of, say, the training of pre-school teachers and nurses in the organization of higher education means that this organization will serve new groups of students and new purposes, and will give new conditions for the future development of these kinds of training.

In a way more spectacular, but of less foreseeable impact, are the innovative new programmes and courses that start, often on an experimental basis. In the explosive expansion period of the 1960s, preparations were made in order to diversify university education, particularly in the faculties of the arts and social sciences, so as to meet new needs. As an early effect of these efforts, schools of journalism were set up outside the universities. It was only in the beginning of the 1970s, when there was a rapidly decreasing number of applicants for traditional courses in some university faculties, that courses of a new type were being established on a considerable scale within the universities. Thus, there are now courses, in most cases of one semester's duration, in information technique, administrative technique, hospital administration etc. These courses may be included in a three-year programme for the degree of "filosofie kandidat", or they may be taken as single courses by students with experience of working life. A similar trend is to give alternative courses in traditional academic subjects, such as sociology or education, adapted to the needs of the new groups of students.

A quite different example is given by the short-cycle technical programmes (in most cases of 1½ years' duration) which were started in 1975 on an experimental basis in the fields of the iron and steel industry, clothing industry, food industry, paper and paperpulp industry, wood industry, and mechanical industry. Their specific entrance requirements are non-traditional: the student has to have the equivalent of a 2-year vocational course at upper secondary level in the intended field of study, and at least four years of work experience.

New structure of the period of study

In the early 1950s the then private educational enterprise of Hermods in Malmö, which is now part of the state-owned enterprise for teaching aids, initiated university courses by correspondence. It was an important means of meeting the need for teacher training in, for example, English and mathematics, in the rapidly expanding school. In the early 1960s these courses were supplemented by decentralized university courses, arranged by the local school board or by educational associations with the co-operation of university teachers. A few university courses have also been given on radio or television. Combinations of various means of distribution of higher education are being tried.

Thus there is quite a long experience of various methods to overcome geographical distance. In 1975 a government commission put forward proposals for education at a distance, the implementation of which will probably be integrated with the reform of higher education decided on by Parliament in 1975.

Also, the universities, and to a lesser extent the specialized colleges, have adapted a part of their activities to meet the needs for new forms of study. Many courses in traditional and non-traditional subjects are given as evening courses. In the future organization of higher education, shorter courses for further training or retraining may become a more important part of the activities of the institutions than before. This will stress the need for more varied forms of study, adapted to the conditions of the students.

New categories of teachers

For a long time teachers from outside the university have supplemented the regular staff of professors and lecturers. For example, lawyers, justices, psychiatrists and surveyors have assisted in applied courses in law studies. Part-time professorships are now being established, particularly in faculties of technology and the natural sciences, for scientists whose main occupations are in enterprises or elsewhere outside the university.

In connection with the development of new courses, as referred to above, new categories of teachers have also been established in higher education. In general these teachers from outside are paid on an hourly basis.

3. Relationship between new forms of higher education and institutions of the conventional type

It has already been indicated that in the 1950s and 1960s new forms of higher education were developed outside the universities. Thus we have today separate institutions for higher education in the fields of journalism, social work and public administration, teaching, libraries etc. In some cases, specialized professional training has been integrated in the universities. The most conspicuous example is that of business economy, although there is still a separate private institution for these studies (Handelshögskolan i Stockholm).

The reform decision of 1975 implies that all state institutions of higher education should, in principle, be part of the same organization. In smaller areas, this means that there will be only one state institution of higher education. In the large cities, above all in Stockholm, there will still be more than one institution, but a considerable reduction in the number is foreseen, in order to allow sufficient co-operation in planning and an efficient use of resources.

Thus, new forms of higher education are intended to develop, in the future, within the existing institutions. In order to increase their capacity for innovation, a new framework for their organisation will be introduced. Some essential features are a new budget system, a new balance between central and local decisions with more emphasis on the latter, and the participation of representatives of all those, both outside and inside the institutions, concerned in decision-making.

Within the future institutions of higher education, traditional and new forms will coexist, and influence each other mutually. It is up to the responsible bodies to create a balance between old and new that serves the needs of the individual and society. Some people foresee that greater differences than now exist will develop between the institutions.

4. Impact of new forms of higher education on social mobility

The implications on social mobility of those new forms of higher education that have been briefly indicated above can only be discussed hypothetically. In any case it is extremely difficult to isolate and measure the effects of changes of any single factor in the educational system, when, as in the last decade, the whole structure is being remodelled.

The underlying school system, from its very beginnings in the pre-school, to the contents and organization of upper secondary school, has a very decisive influence on access to higher education, as has obviously the rules of qualification and selection to higher education. Also the content, organization and forms of study in higher education influence the selection of students: for example the short-cycle technical programmes mentioned above will apply to other groups of potential students than traditional university courses.

The location of higher education institutions and the ways of distribution (television, correspondence, decentralised courses etc.) are of prime importance: the number of higher education students in the total population is much higher in the neighbourhood of an institution of higher education. Other important factors are information and guidance, and financial support.

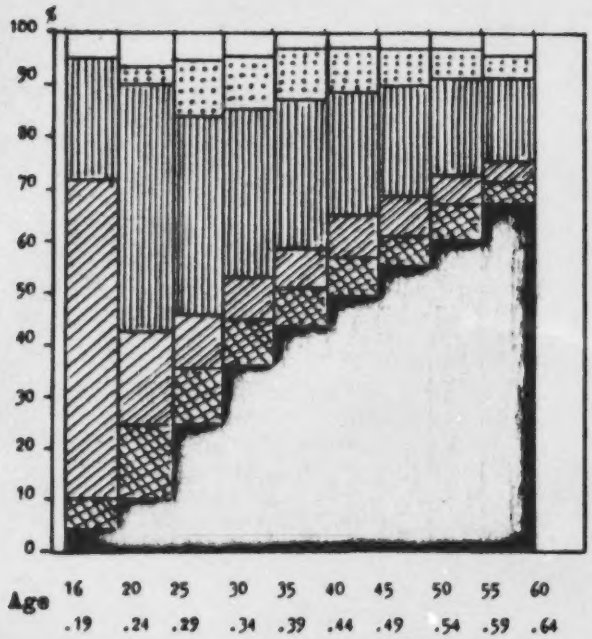
To this complexity of the factors to be taken into account in a study of social mobility related to educational planning should be added the increasing length of the periods to be studied. The full impact of the organisation of studies along principles of recurrent education can only be assessed at a rather late age of the individual.

An indication of the effects of the educational policy as a whole can be given by graphs on the distribution of the population by level of education. Graph A shows the factual distribution according to the 1970 census and graph B shows the estimated distribution in the year 2000 under the assumption that the educational system is "frozen" to the conditions of the late 1970s.

Distribution on educational levels of the Swedish population in the years 1970 and 2000

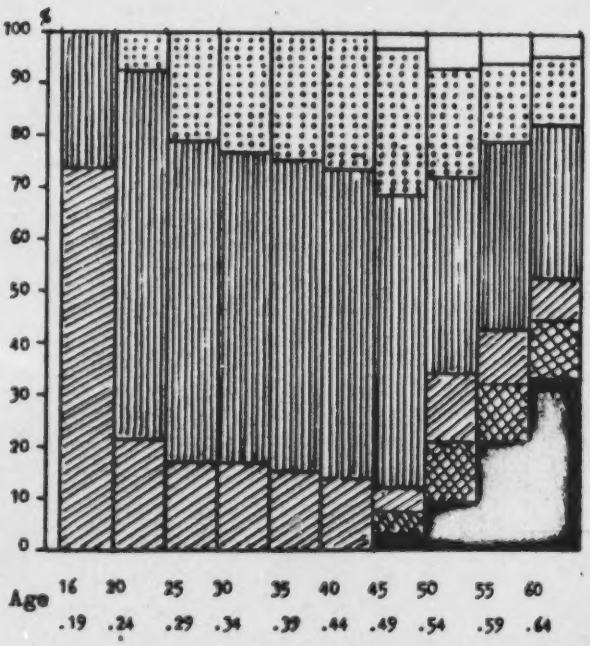
Graph A

1970



Graph B

2000



Elementary school, 7 years

Elementary school, 8 years

Comprehensive school, 9 years

Upper secondary school

Higher education

No information

NEW FORMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN YUGOSLAVIA

by Professor Mihailo Djurišić

I should like to put forward my views on some of the questions listed in the document entitled: Main topics for discussion (ED-76/Conf. 805/2).

I. Definition and criteria of new forms of education

The first question is the definition of new forms of higher education, the principles for classifying them and the emergence of new structures including their development and distinguishing features in certain European countries.

I assume we all agree that this is one of the most important questions and that the entire discussion during this symposium depends on determining it clearly and precisely. We shall complete a major part of our work here if we can define the new forms and determine criteria for recognising and registering them in certain European countries. This is the basis for considering the other questions in the document.

I think it is particularly important to establish criteria which will help us to distinguish better between new and traditional forms. I think that the opinion adopted in the above mentioned document, which focuses only on criteria with a sociological character, is correct and sufficient and should not be expanded to include other aspects. Equally acceptable is the list of criteria offered by this document (the possibility of giving people outside the 18 to 24 year old age group greater access to higher education; the possibility for people to study while performing other activities; greater opportunities for experts from outside the higher education institutions to take part in higher education as teachers, while still pursuing their professional careers).

However, I feel that the following criteria should be added to the above:

1. Democratization within higher education itself, which enables:
   a) the greater participation of all those included in the educational process in decision-making on all fundamental questions pertaining to the work and development of higher education
   b) a change in the position of students and their participation in higher education, including their influence on the content and methods of education. This is especially necessary due to the ever-increasing number of adults in higher education, as foreseen by the Centre's criteria
   c) a change in the role of teachers as the basic factor in the acquiring of knowledge by students;
2. The creation of conditions for the younger generation (between 18 and 22 years of age) to have easier and greater access to higher education, and the removal of the current restrictions with regard to the economic status or background of the students;

3. The establishment of closer ties between higher education and enterprises, public services and other institutions which require personnel schooled in higher educational forms, and the possibility for these structures of the labour market, which are not connected with higher education, to influence the character and profile of the graduates offered them by education. This would mean exposing the universities and other institutions of higher education to the direct influence of the whole of society instead of just to the educational authorities;

4. New ways and means of financing education beyond the traditional forms where the budget system prevails.

In view of the specific nature of the development of education in certain countries, the supplementary criteria I have proposed may, at first glance, seem to lack a universal character, but I consider them to be important. In my own country they are a major factor in the new forms of post-elementary school education in general, and especially at the higher levels.

In this connection I should like to comment on the degree of importance of these criteria in considering new forms of higher education. In my opinion it is not necessary to have all the criteria mentioned so far present at the same time in the higher education structures of some countries to enable certain new forms to be identified as such. Some of them only are sufficient as the rate and extent of higher educational reform varies from country to country and is conditioned by numerous elements. Consequently, one must not expect uniformity either in the scope and character of changes or in the time limits set for effecting these changes. Our aim, therefore, is to register and follow these changes within the framework of the Centre and to keep each other informed of them. It is for this reason that I have proposed these additional criteria.

A. <u>The presence of new forms</u>

I should now like to inform this meeting of some of the new forms introduced in the field of higher education in Yugoslavia, within the framework of the criteria given in the Centre's "Main topics for discussion" and those I have proposed in this paper.

Like many other countries, Yugoslavia has had many difficulties with the problems of developing education in general, and therefore higher education, with the needs of the economic and social development and with the ever-growing need and demand of individuals for education. These include such well-known shortcomings of education as: the disproportion between labour and material capacities, and social and individual needs, following the expansion of higher education; the autarchic development of higher education with regard to the needs of the labour market and consequently the disparity between the profile and structure of professionals and the profiles required for the country's socio-economic development; the insufficient and inadequate training of graduates for their subsequent work; the steady rise in the costs of education and the financial resources which have never been sufficient to fulfil the existing needs; the universities' closed-door attitude towards society, which enables the continuance of conservative and outdated methods; a kind of elitism due to the fact that access to higher education depends on the economic position of the family and the background from which the

student comes. To these we must add the preference given to young people over the older generations with regard to higher education, the ineffectiveness and irrationality of higher education reflected in extended years of study, the high drop-out rate, the repetition of academic years etc.

For years now, our society has been trying to solve these problems and by taking certain steps we have achieved some positive results. The most important of these include:

1. expanding the network of institutes of higher learning and creating new university centres in the capital cities of our republics and provinces, as well as elsewhere, reflecting the policy of "demetropolizing" higher education. This resulted in a radical change in the social structure of the students to the advantage of those from worker and peasant backgrounds (today Yugoslavia has 15 university centres with some 300 institutes of higher learning - faculties, junior colleges and vocational schools);

2. allowing greater access to higher education by: granting graduates from all types of secondary schools the right to enrol in institutes of higher learning (i.e. coming from high schools, secondary technical schools or schools for skilled workers); granting those people who have not completed secondary school the right, under certain conditions, to be included in the process of higher education; developing part-time study by offering a broad range of opportunities to working people enabling them to take advantage of their right to education while being employed. This includes: grants and loans by the labour and other organizations; flexible work shifts; reduced working hours by at least two hours a day, without a reduction in salary; paid leave of absence for the whole or part of the educational process: for taking examinations, including M.A. and doctoral examinations; organized and paid professional teaching assistance in preparing for examinations, seminar papers, M.A. and doctoral theses; allowing annual vacations to be linked with paid leave of absence for the purpose of studying and preparing for examinations; providing paid transport to the educational institution; paying travel expenses and subsistence allowance for those who have to take their examinations in places other than where they live; free textbooks and equipment or sharing in the cost of their purchase; partial or complete coverage of special costs if not covered by the regular system of financing.

   All this has led to a substantial rise in the number of students, so that today Yugoslavia has 360,000 students, nearly half of whom are part-time. This amounts to 7% of the total employment figure for the country, or almost 2% of the entire population;

3. opening up special departments in certain faculties where the four-year programme is divided into four sequences. The completion of each sequence brings with it a corresponding diploma for employment (technical and organizational sciences);

4. combining, in part-time studies, independent work at home, condensed classroom work (once or twice a semester), compulsory laboratory and section work at faculties and elsewhere,

obligatory practical work in other enterprises and institutions, written consultations, guided consultations (individual or group - including the attendance of professors at the enterprise or institution in which the group of students is working) etc.;

5. combining the full-time and part-time forms in the course of studies (paid leave of absence for the purpose of studying is granted after the first year, then studies are resumed on a parallel with work, after which one is again entitled to leave of absence, etc.);

6. employing outstanding experts from certain fields of work and science to give individual forms of teaching/scientific work to the students (especially in the technical-organizational sciences), even if these experts are not trained academics, and also placing the students under the guidance of a "tutor" within the enterprise or institution in which they are employed;

7. linking work organizations outside the field of education with institutes of higher learning for the purpose of special schooling and advanced training for professional personnel, including managers, and the formation of certain faculty units in places with a developed industry employing a large number of workers and experts. Certain larger work organizations even have their own complete system of education and advanced training for their staff, from the lowest level in secondary-school education to university, post-graduate and doctoral levels. Within these centres of education, scientific research has been united with educational and labour-producing functions;

8. setting up institutions of higher learning as independent organizations of associated labour, with their own self-management system, composed of elected representatives of teachers, students and technical staff, and with the participation of representatives from the broader social community;

9. bringing the question of more regular completion of studies and of the drop-out rate to a head. Today there are a considerable number of faculties in the country which have managed to impose and maintain the regular completion of each semester, so that the majority of students finish the academic year on time;

10. changing the system of financing higher education and abandoning the principle of the State securing and apportioning funds.

B. <u>Further work on educational reform</u>

The above-mentioned measures, however, were not enough. They helped only to improve the existing situation and partially to adapt higher education to society's needs. Therefore, new answers had to be found. They are generally envisaged and expressed in the new Yugoslav Constitution of 1974, in the Resolution on Education passed by the Xth Congress of the Communist League of Yugoslavia in 1974, and in laws and other acts, passed within our republics and provinces, dealing with higher education. (There is no function in the field of education in Yugoslavia at a federal level and therefore there is no federal Ministry of Education.)

The policy and system of the whole of post-elementary school education in Yugoslavia, including higher education, is undergoing a reform based on the above-mentioned documents. Therefore, this is not merely a reform of

higher education but of vocational education as a whole, where higher education represents the final stage. The object of this reform is radically to alter the relationship between man and education, with regard to: a) the conditions and possibility of access to education (the right to education); b) the position and role of the working man in the educational process and in the management of educational institutions; c) the policy of investing, managing and distributing the means for education; d) the establishment and pursuit of policy in the field of education and the development of personnel in both the macro and micro plans for the organization of society and labour.

The main steps in attaining these goals include:

- creating the conditions for ensuring that workers and the working people, organized in associated labour, have a say in the policy and development of education and that this activity is seen as carrying out the goals and tasks of the socialist construction. In his Critique of the Gotha Programme, Marx marked out the main direction of education in future society: the combining of education with other fields of work, i.e. linking up schools and factories;

- developing self-management relations in this field to include, apart from workers and other working people, the active participation of pupils and students in self-management. The entire self-management-based organization of educational institutions should serve to equip pupils and students for the active performance of complex functions in the self-managing socialist society;

- building up a new unified system of education, based on the principle of permanent and recurrent education. The idea is to create a unified organizational programme and institutional basis for general (ten-year-long) education, the same for all young and working people, as well as a unified organizational and institutional basis for professional education, in keeping with the needs of work organizations in the economy and in the public services. This system should be democratic (available to young and working people), flexible (adapting to technical-technological progress and to the development of self-management relations in our country), adaptable (securing the horizontal and vertical mobility of people in the process of education and adapting to the needs of associated labour);

- making the education system rational and effective in terms of the duration of education and the earlier inclusion of young people in labour. The attainment of this goal should be advanced by modernizing educational technology and introducing new technical methods;

- carrying out consistently the policy of social equality. It should be possible for everyone to advance in education as far as possible, depending exclusively on their work and aptitude and not on their material position or the economic prosperity of the environment. The solution to these problems is based on a policy of solidarity among the working people and citizens as well as among the republics, provinces and smaller units of society;

- improving the material position of education and securing an

equal social and material position for working people in education with working people in other fields. The best way to effect this is to integrate the activities of education with the united and unified system of self-management, associated labour;

- pursuing consistently the policy of developing education in the languages of our nations and nationalities and allowing the members of these nations and nationalities to be educated in their own language.

As can be seen, the reform of professional, including higher, education, has a two-fold character. On the one hand, this is a reform of management of education, and on the other, it is a reform of all aspects of the system: organizational, programme, technological.

In the first case, this means the further "de-etatization" and socialization of these fields in the fullest sense of the word: determining and carrying out education policy, organising and building up a system of education for both young and old alike, and financing education. Instead of state organs, which in Yugoslavia operated at the level of the socialist republics and provinces, the recipients of education at the secondary and higher educational levels will be the working people and citizens, associated in their enterprises and public services, and will secure the means for developing education. This is achieved through a special joint mechanism which has already been built up and which we have called "self-management interest communities for education"*, composed of representatives of workers and citizens. Thus, education comes within the scope of social work, as an integral part of social reproduction - labour and material - and the reproduction of socialist self-managing relations.

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* Self-management interest communities for education (SIC) are composed of representatives from economic organizations, public services and citizens, including representatives from institutions of education. There are special SIC for elementary, and others for professional, education, including higher education. The latter are set up according to the different fields of work (i.e. for the chemical industry, metal processing, etc.), while the former are established on the territorial principle (within the framework of municipalities). SIC are associated at the level of a socialist republic and the federation, with the aim of co-ordinating work and establishing joint policy. SIC for education have taken over almost all the tasks and functions in education previously handled by the State: planning the development of education (on the basis of plans concerning the personnel of economic organizations, public services and municipalities), establishing and abolishing education institutions and other forms of education, financing, etc. The funds for education flow into the SIC, according to an established amount (set by SIC), from enterprises, public services and citizens. SIC then uses these funds according to an established plan. Institutions of education make agreements with SIC for education and on this basis obtain funds for their work. However, they can offer their educational services (and charge for them) directly in conjunction with economic organizations etc., and not only through SIC.

Another aspect of the current educational reform in Yugoslavia is the transformation of secondary and higher education into a unified system with a greater number of levels than before, based on the idea of permanent education, with a pronounced tendency to combine education with labour, i.e. inter-alternating labour and education.

C. Basic trends of the new system

The system we are building up should include the following characteristics:-

a) unity and equality of all forms of education, i.e. removing the differences between so-called internal and socially recognized education (and skilled qualifications);

b) equality between education for youth and education for adults, i.e. eliminating the differences in the social and material status of so-called full-time and part-time studying, those who study before beginning to work and those who study while working;

c) full implementation of so-called recurrent education, i.e. enabling everyone at any time to leave the education system and join the labour process, and then return to education without hindrance;

d) the introduction of a greater number of levels of education, in place of the present secondary, higher and university levels;

e) the fulfilment requirement of each form and level of education, i.e. the responsibility of each form of education to provide certain expertise in order to carry out the functions of labour in the corresponding profession;

f) the introduction of a linear in place of a concentric system of educational content;

g) vertical and horizontal mobility of those within the system of education and the professions or groups of professions;

h) the gradual combination of the final stages of present-day secondary education with the initial stages of present-day vocational and higher education and the removal of barriers between them;

i) the linking up of higher forms of professional education with scientific-research work.

II. The structural, functional and educational interdependence of new forms of education and conventional institutions

This project of reform for post-elementary (professional) education, which we call guided education and which has already started in Yugoslavia, should lead to an entirely new system of education. Hence, this is a radical reform of the existing system and not just a question of repairing, amending and improving it. Nor is it a question of the parallel existence of traditional and new forms, but rather the replacement of one by the other. We believe that in the near future this new system will take over entirely from the present one.

As we follow the development of education in the countries of Europe, especially in Scandinavia, we can observe very similar and often identical tendencies with what is going on in Yugoslavia. Consequently, we believe that the future of education lies in the permanent education of people throughout their life, in developing different forms of education with and from labour (the principle of recurrent education), in democratizing all levels of education and in establishing stronger links between education and the fields of economic, social, cultural and political life. This is impossible without a radical reform of the present system.

Changes within the system of education should include all aspects of it, such as: the vertical grading of the existing levels, the duration of education, the forms of education (schools and other institutions), the content of education, forms and methods of educational work, valorisation of results attained in studying, teaching etc.

In our case, the existing vocational and higher education*, according to the new concept, is based on the last stage of secondary education and is firmly linked to it. It represents an extended ladder in the levels of education and will be effected by a greater number of levels than at present - probably six, and perhaps more - each of which will last for a given period of time and will provide a specific level of education and skill. Each of these levels, therefore, will offer the possibility of interrupting schooling and becoming a part of the labour process, at the same time making it possible to resume schooling either immediately or later, while working or with an interruption in work. These levels will be grouped in sequences, which will designate given levels, similar to those we have now.

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* Yugoslavia now has: eight years elementary education; four years secondary education; two years in junior college which is an extension of secondary education; four to five years higher education. There is also graduate work:
  - advanced training, up to six months;
  - specialized graduate studies, one to two years;
  - M.A. studies, two years, leading to the first graduate academic degree of M.A.

Unified scale of skilled occupations

Level	Title and description of job	Necessary education
1.	Apprenticed worker The simpler occupations for which one can be trained by a brief on-the-spot apprenticeship	
2.	Specialized worker Simpler and less complicated occupations for which one can be trained by attending courses and on-the-spot apprenticeship for a period up to two years upon completion of elementary school	Level of specialized training for workers
3.	Specialized skilled worker Medium-complex occupations for which brief training is required after secondary school, i.e. 10 years of education	
4.	Skilled worker More complex jobs entailing one to two years education upon completion of general secondary school, i.e. 10 years of education	Intermediate level of guided education
5.	Skilled worker-specialist Complex jobs for which, after the completed previous level of specialized professional education implies one to two years of specialist training	
	Advanced skilled worker (plant engineer, teacher, etc.) More complex occupation implying completed junior college level education	Advanced level of guided education
7.	Advanced skilled worker-specialist More complex occupations which, after completed junior college level education, imply corresponding advanced training of about one year or more	
8.	University-level worker (graduate engineer, professor, etc.) Occupation implying the completion of university education	University level of guided education
9.	University-level worker-specialist Occupation which, after completed university, implies specialized training of one year or more	
10.	University-level worker - M.A. Occupation implying, after completed university, graduate studies or specialized education of over one year and corresponding certificate	Level of scholar
11.	University-level worker - doctorate Occupation implying a doctorate	

Professional guided education is constituted on the basis of this new unified scale, which was adopted as a proposal for public debate by the Inter-Republican and Provincial Commission for Education Reform. This entails:

1. Specialized training for apprenticed workers (Ist level of specialization) without elementary school and for specialized workers who have completed elementary school (IInd level). This is carried out in organizations of associated labour of the given economic and non-economic fields of activity.

2. Professional guided education at intermediate level for specialized skilled workers (IIIrd level) with completed general post-elementary education, lasting about one year; for skilled workers (IVth level) with completed post-elementary education, lasting about two years; and for skilled workers - specialists who have attained the IVth level, lasting about one year. This section of education is carried out in schools for skilled workers (secondary schools), while the practical training is acquired in organizations of associated labour for the given economic and non-economic fields of activity.

3. Professional guided education at advanced level for advanced skilled workers (VIth level) with completed IVth level training, lasting about two years and for advanced skilled workers - specialists (VIIth level) with completed VIth level, lasting about one year. This education is carried out in schools for advanced skilled workers (advanced schools), while the skilled practical work is done in organizations of associated labour of the given economic and non-economic fields of activity.

4. Professional guided education at university level for university graduate workers (VIIIth level) which includes people with completed IVth level, lasting about four years; people with completed VIth level, lasting about two years; and for university graduate specialists (IXth level), M.A. holders (Xth level) and Ph.D.'s (XIth level). This education is carried out in schools for university trained workers (faculties, academies of art, etc.), while the practical work is done in organizations of associated labour for the given economic or non-economic fields of activity.

III. Influence of new forms of education on social mobility

The already implemented, and especially planned, new forms of guided education, including higher education, are deeply rooted in the socio-economic and technical-technological development of our society. The most important changes which brought about these new forms are:

- the steady development of science, techniques and organization of labour and their implementation in production and other fields of life;
- changes in the management of the work and life of the people, and especially the possibility and importance of each citizen taking part in management in all fields of activity in society;
- the further development of self-management socialist relations in our country, as given in the Constitution and in other top-level decisions in the country, striving to place the whole of

social reproduction in the hands of the workers and other working people;

- the growing awareness and need of the people to acquire as much and as varied education as possible, as this determines not only his contribution to, but also his place in, society, his social and economic position, his right to take part in the advantages of society etc.

These changes have only intensified the problem of the gap between education and socio-economic development, underlining still more strongly the closed and obsolete nature of education and the need to bring it into balance, through radical changes, with the present and future needs of a developing society. Consequently, more radical reform in the field of education is essential to our present and future social development.

Earlier on, we stressed that the two most important principles for changing the education system are: a) the integration of education and labour and the transfer of the management of education to working people in associated labour, and b) the possibility of education lasting throughout a person's life, by constantly inter-alternating labour and education.

Education built on these foundations should lead to equal opportunities of education for the young and for the older generations, thereby eliminating the existing inequality between the different age-groups. This system also opens up the drawing power of education; it enables young people to enter the labour world sooner; it provides a better link between the true need for degrees of specialized training and those which provide education; it gives closer ties between theoretical and practical work and allows for the easier penetration of new knowledge into the field of labour. Here one should also add the better and more rational use of funds intended for education, as the percentage of drop-outs, extended studies, etc., is decreasing.

On the basis of the above it is clear that the new forms are greatly increasing the overall mobility of society, especially the possibility for transferring from primary to secondary or tertiary activities and vice versa, for changing skills and occupations, and for advanced training within a given profession or skill, etc. The question of mobility, i.e. the possibilities offered in this respect by education and especially in terms of the population's move from agricultural to secondary and tertiary sectors, is extremely important for our country, which has considerable labour force reserves in the villages - about 35% of the total population. An especially important fact is that the restrictions and inequalities in the acquisition of all levels of education, conditioned by social, economic, labour, age or other factors, have practically been removed. A situation is being created in which the worker in associated labour, and the people in general, are taking their future into their own hands and are assuming responsibility for their education.

NEW FORMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY: SOME REMARKS

by Professor Dr. Ludwig Huber

1. Description

Taking the criteria for what are called "new forms of higher education" which are given in the symposium documents as a guideline, I can find only a few examples in the Federal Republic which I shall enumerate briefly:

- A few developments under the general heading of "Fernstudium" (tele-study or similar) "enabling the student to engage simultaneously or intermittently... in activities other than higher studies". However, most of the courses which have been developed either by the "Deutsches Institut für Fernstudien" (DIFF) at Tübingen or by one or more of the broadcasting corporations, or by both together, are intended as part of an in-service training or recurrent education of university graduates (especially teachers) or simply of adult education; some of them try to bridge the gap between high school knowledge and university requirements in certain disciplines by preparatory courses (e.g. a "Mathematisches Vorsemester" broadcast by the Westdeutscher Rundfunk). This means that such programmes do not replace conventional university studies but serve as a complement to them; only a few of the most successful ones have been acknowledged by university and state authorities as the equivalent of certain university lectures, seminars or courses (e.g. courses in linguistics, education, mathematics edited by the 'Quadriga-Funkkolleg" of four southern and western radio corporations and the DIFF), but they have never enabled students to study solely by this means without any attendance at a university. On the contrary: as the term "Fernstudium im Medienverbund" (i.e. audiovisual media and other learning methods, distance and presence studies linked together) implies, many people, especially from within the universities, have tried and partly succeeded in keeping studies and students within or close to the universities, and have used the new educational technology only as a means of enriching or varying academic learning. This was the general line of development activities carried out by the Volkswagenwerk Foundation and the "Hochschulvereinigung für das Fernstudium im Medienverbund" until its dissolution in 1974.

  Only recently a "Fernuniversität" (Tele-university) was started in Hagen (North-Rhine-Westphalia). It organizes distance studies by correspondence courses and is supplemented by tutorials in the place where the students live, but it is mainly geared to the conventional student population and so far does not enable a new student population to benefit from higher education.

- Secondly we have to consider the various plans, models and developments under the general heading of "Gesamthochschule" (comprehensive university system). Most of these, however,

are concerned with a structural reorganization of the existing institutions and curricula in higher education, combining them in a comprehensive system which allows more flexibility and mobility, and more differentiation in certificates etc.; some are aimed at changes in the content of curricula, mostly with regard to the relationship between theory and practice. All these activities are planned or carried out with the conventional student population, study periods and teaching staff. One example only, with the name "Baukastensystem" - a sort of modular system with long intervals between periods of study - was intended to lead to an alternation of professional or vocational work and periods of study, to a wider composition of the student body and to the involvement of specialists from outside the university as part-time teachers. However, since the publication of this plan in 1969 there has so far been no sign that it will ever be fully implemented.

- A third line of development might be considered in this context: this is the idea of "Integrierte Praktika" (practical work and training integrated in the curriculum). It has always been obligatory for students in certain disciplines to work for some time or at least to look around in their respective practical fields ("Praktikum"), but these activities were not, or only slightly, organized or supervised by the universities, and were not organically part of the academic curriculum. Changes are under way in a few institutions with regard to this, but with a certain amount of both political and organizational opposition. The most ambitious attempt is being made in the education of lawyers: whereas in the traditional form, ca. 4 years of study are, after the final examination, followed by ca. $2\frac{1}{2}$ years of training in the various occupational fields of the law and a second examination, in the new form ("Einphasige Juristenausbildung") these stages are combined (with continuous examinations) and varying periods of work in these occupational fields are alternated with periods of study concerning, ideally, the problems of these specific fields. These experiments are being carried out at the universities of Augsburg, Bielefeld, Bremen, Hamburg, Hannover and, to a certain extent, Frankfurt. This scheme does meet criterion (c), in so far as judges, lawyers, counsellors etc. are serving as "mentors" (tutors, supervisors) to the students during the practical periods. However, it does not appeal to the new student population or allow part-time studies.

In conclusion: there are no new forms of higher education in the Federal Republic which meet all three criteria given in the Working Paper of this symposium. A few institutions or programmes, mostly in an experimental stage, can be considered as meeting at least one or two of these criteria. However, none of these (with the possible exception of the Einphasige Juristenausbildung) is very important in terms of quantity. Finally, after some initial enthusiasm for new forms of higher education, the present climate seems to be very much against them.

This means that, at present, with regard to my own country I am not able to subscribe to any paragraphs or phrases in the Working Paper implying general trends and tendencies in favour of developments in new forms of higher education - although I would very much like to be able to do so.

2. A few attempts at analysis

What are the reasons for this situation? I consider three points can be made which I would like to suggest for discussion: the first derives directly from political and economic conditions, the second from the administrative and organizational framework, and the third from the historical elements in our academic institutions.

Proposals, programmes and experiments regarding "new forms of higher education" as defined here are mainly the results of a period when it was considered by certain economists, sociologists and above all educationalists, and accepted by some politicians, that economic growth would continue and would therefore require continuously improved qualifications of the labour force in general, both in quantitative and qualitative terms. It was also expected that technological progress would make necessary and, at the same time, allow the use of more highly qualified workers at all levels (cf. the Working Paper, passim). This assumption is questionable due to the factual economic development - about which I am not going to talk - but also, which is more important to our discussion, on theoretical grounds: does not technological progress lead rather to "polarisation" i.e. a relatively small proportion of highly qualified managers and technicians etc. as opposed to a high proportion of workers whose qualifications do not count for very much?

With or without such reasoning: as from 1974 and for at least the next ten years politicians and administrators are attempting to cope with what we, in Germany, call the "Studentenberg", i.e. a sharp increase in the number of young people wishing to enrol at universities (this term is not justified, however, if one compares the proportion of students to population in other industrial societies...). As most of the examples of "new forms of higher education" are aiming at an expansion and/or an improvement of higher education they have no chance in the present political climate.

Nevertheless, the importance of obtaining an academic degree with regard to the economic and social status of its holder has been increasing all the time, factually and psychologically. A large number of students from working class families have, in addition to those from a bourgeois background, turned to the tertiary institutions (having the sole right to award degrees) and are competing for places at them. State control of curricula and examinations, traditionally strong in Germany, has been strengthened even more by developments calling for just, equal, legitimate and publically controlled procedures in the distribution of such valuable assets. Another stimulus to enforce state control on all forms of study has been the political unrest within the universities. Standardising curricula, formalising rules and fixing the equivalence of courses and degrees have therefore become matters of great importance to politicians and administrators. Such aims, which are further complicated by the obligation of the ministers of education of all the eleven states to be in agreement, have had drastic consequences for even the most minor reforms within the existing curricula; they are almost insurmountable barriers to any new forms of higher education which would mean more variation in the content and forms of learning, in the assessment of criteria and methods and in the recruitment and control of the teaching personnel in the widest sense.

From a number of traditions in our academic institutions which have a bearing on this problem I would like to stress two. The first is

ideological in nature: German universities, since Humboldt, have been very reluctant to acknowledge the practical function they have or ought to have, and are keen to stress the differences and to keep away from profession-orientated studies. This is a definite obstacle to such new forms of study which would confront university and administrative staff with practical problems: these are in fact impossible for a teaching system organized along disciplinary lines and are also, unfortunately, insoluble for research along these lines. They create or accentuate a danger to the established academic system, which professors will try to defend on all fronts, one of which is the exclusion of non-academic professionals from regular teaching.

The second is connected more with the organization of teaching: unlike the Anglosaxon universities the German university does not have a tutorial system in which the students are guided and supervised regularly and more or less individually in their study by the teacher responsible for them. In some new forms of higher education under the term "university without walls" (in the USA) this system is showing its flexibility in courses made up individually of periods or modules of academic study, practical work, excursions etc. Nothing in the tradition of German university teaching of undergraduates prepares universities for such an approach; and in the present situation of a large number of students and a relatively low number of staff it is very unlikely to come about.

Therefore, the situation as described in the first part of this paper is not a transient one likely to change quickly and to produce new forms of various kinds. On the contrary it appears to be deeply rooted in the political and economic conditions of our social system, the needs of administration and the history of our universities.

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

by Mr. Brian MacARTHUR

Using the definition in the Working Paper for this symposium (paragraph 18), the Open University and the new Diploma of Higher Education are the only two "new forms" of higher education in the United Kingdom which merit discussion : The Open University is a new institution for a new student population and the Diploma of Higher Education is a new, two-year, qualification in British higher education.

There are, of course, many innovations in institutions, in the teaching and the examining of courses, and in new types of institution. Yet these are set firmly within the traditional mould of British higher education, described vividly in a recent study by the Nuffield Foundation's Group for Research and Innovation in Higher Education [x] :

"A 'typical' undergraduate course at a British university conjures up a set of familiar, almost emblematic pictures. The course will be founded on a single academic discipline : it will last three (or sometimes four) years; it will be taught by a combination of lectures and small group tutorials; and there will be examinations at the end of each year, consisting entirely of three-hour essay papers. Subjects with laboratory work will involve students doing standard set-piece experiments, often in rotation."

It also needs to be remembered that British "higher" education, as against "further" education, is still a small system and will remain small even into the 1980s, when it is expected that some 17 per cent of the 18 to 22-year-old age group will be going to universities, institutes or polytechnics and that the student population will be between 600,000 and 700,000. At present, the main incentive to search for new forms of higher education is economic and is created by the search for cheaper higher education.

Among the significant innovations worth noting are :

(1) The 30 polytechnics, which as "comprehensive" institutions cater for degree and sub-degree level work and which are more regional and vocational institutions than the universities. Many of their students are on sandwich courses which combine academic work with periods of on-the-job training in industry, commerce or local government;

(2) The growth, especially in the polytechnics, of short training courses which could be defined as recurrent education;

(3) The creation of unit-based, modular degrees which give students much greater opportunities to make up their own courses from selections of up to 200 units on offer in the institution.

All these, though, are innovations within the traditional structure of conventional British higher education.

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x The Drift of Change. An Interim Report of the Group for Research and Innovation in Higher Education. London, The Nuffield Foundation.

NEW FORMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

1. The Diploma of Higher Education

An official Government White Paper[x] made the following points about the Dip. HE :

"The motives that impel sixth formers to seek higher education are many, various and seldom clear-cut. A minority wish to continue for its own sake the study in depth of a specialized subject to the top of their bent. It is crucial for the world of scholarship, research and invention that their needs should be met. This has always been a leading function of the universities and must remain so. Some students have a specific career in mind. A larger number are anxious to develop over a wider field what the Robbins Committee called the general powers of the mind, but not without questioning whether a specialized honours degree course is the best way of achieving it. Some ask for no more than a stimulating opportunity to come to terms with themselves, and to discover where their real interests and abilities lie. Others have no better reason than involuntarily to fall in with the advice of their teachers and the example of their contemporaries. But not far from the surface of most candidates' minds is the tacit belief that higher education will go far to guarantee them a better job. All expect it to prepare them to cope more successfully with the problems that will confront them in their personal, social and working lives.

"It is important that the last and most widespread of these expectations should not be disappointed. The Government have sympathy with the sincere desire on the part of a growing number of students to be given more help in acquiring - and discovering how to apply - knowledge and skills related more directly to the decisions that will face them in their careers and in the world of personal and social action. This is what is meant by "relevance". The wider the span of student motivation, the greater the need to match it with a wide and flexible choice of course. This is being achieved increasingly by a system of units and credits devised in such a way as to ease transfer from one course or institution to another which should help students to retrieve false starts and make more possible the development of recurrent education."

"Those who wish to continue their education have the choice either of entering employment and doing so part-time, or, in the main, of committing themselves to a course lasting not less than three years. Only a limited range of two-year courses is available at present, all in specific vocational areas.

"The Government consider this gap ought now to be filled. They believe that a range of intellectually demanding two-year courses will be a critical element in achieving greater flexibility in higher education. They welcome the James Committee's recognition of the potential of two-year courses, but the proposals which follow are designed to serve a wider purpose than that envisaged in their Report.

"As a result of their consultations on the Report, the Government conclude that there is sufficient support for the introduction of new two-year courses, leading to a Diploma of Higher Education (Dip. HE), with the following six characteristics :

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x Education: A Framework for Expansion. London, HMSO.

Standard

They must offer a genuine and useful addition to those forms of higher education already available, not a cheap substitute for any of them. This means that they must be no less demanding intellectually than the first two years of a course at degree level. Thus the normal minimum entry qualification should be the same as for degrees or comparable courses (five GCE passes including two at Advanced level or the equivalent).

Availability

Courses on the lines proposed should be seen as a new option to be offered by institutions in each of the main sectors of higher education. It is intended that both general and specialised courses should be made available.

Acceptability

The qualification offered after two years must be made generally acceptable as a terminal qualification and in particular as a qualification needed for entry to appropriate forms of employment. Clearly the full achievement of this will depend on experience of courses offered and of the capacities achieved by the students who have completed them. The Government will undertake discussions with the appropriate organisations to explore the question of acceptability; meanwhile as employers themselves they will consider how the qualifications might be fitted into their arrangements for recruitment to the public service.

Credit

Courses should also be seen as providing a foundation for further study and be designed, where appropriate, in such a way as to earn credit towards other qualifications, including degrees and the requirements of professional bodies. This objective would be more readily achieved if courses were developed on a unit basis - offering students the opportunity of a programme which could be modified as their interests and career plans unfolded - and if this principle became more common in longer courses as well.

Validation

Courses should be validated by existing degree-awarding bodies. The Government welcome the willingness of the Council for National Academic Awards to undertake responsibility; they believe that a number of universities will wish to offer the Dip. HE themselves and be prepared to validate courses where colleges do not seek validation from the CNAA.

Awards

It is the Government's intention that Dip. HE students should qualify for mandatory awards."

At present the Dip. HE has been put on by only a handful of institutions, (although some 20 will be offering it to students during 1976). Yet it is still more of a potential new form of higher education than a genuine one, since most institutions require students entering diploma courses to have the normal degree-level entry requirements and they are tending to use the diploma as Part One of a degree course rather than as a terminal qualification.

2. The Open University x

"The Open University has been described as the most important innovation in British education in the last half-century. Its significance lies not only in its multi-media distance teaching methods, but also in its philosophical concept of openness - providing university-level education for all those who are capable of it, regardless of their age, status, or previous academic qualifications.

"Unlike most other universities, in the Open University students and staff do not come together on a campus as such. Instead, a central core of academic and administrative personnel at the University's headquarters produce distance teaching materials which are sent directly to students' homes throughout the country. Open University students are working adults who live at home and study in their spare time.

"The University's 'open' teaching system allows students to study at their own pace; they can drop out of the system between courses and start studying again at their convenience. They can take virtually any combination of courses from a wide range of disciplines.

"Finally, the Open University is open to all. No qualifications are needed to apply; admission is mainly on a first-come first-served basis. Britain's 'university of the second chance' has opened the door for thousands of adults who previously had little or no opportunity to continue their education."

Undergraduate

"At undergraduate level the University awards the BA and BA(Honours) degrees. Degrees are built up on a credit system. A credit is awarded to a student who completes a one-year course (late January to November) on the basis of continuous assessment and a three-hour final examination. Six undergraduate credits qualify a student for the ordinary degree and eight credits are needed for the honours degree.

"Because a one-year credit course requires 32 weekly units of work (each demanding 10-14 hours of study), it is expected that many students will take about six years to get an ordinary degree and eight years for an honours degree. However, it is possible to graduate in three years, because students can take a maximum of two courses each year. If a student has already successfully completed a period of study at a higher educational level elsewhere, he may be awarded up to three general credit exemptions. In this way the Open University enables him to 'top up' his existing qualifications to degree standard.

"The University's courses are offered at four levels - foundation, second, third and fourth. All students start with a foundation course, a broadly-based introductory course which assumes no prior knowledge of the subject. These inter-disciplinary courses are offered by five of the faculties - Arts, Social Sciences, Mathematics, Science and Technology. The sixth faculty, Educational Studies, starts its courses at second level.

"After foundation level, students can make up their own programme of study by taking virtually any combination of courses. In 1976 there will be more than

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x An introduction to the Open University. Milton Keynes, The Open University Information Services Department.

90 course options. A student's freedom of choice to design his own personal degree structure is enhanced by half-credit courses lasting 16 to 18 weeks. There is even greater flexibility in science, where the faculty has produced some one-third and one-sixth courses which may be combined as half credits."

Post-experience

"There are fourteen post-experience courses, which are selfcontained and vary in length from five to ten months. These are non-degree courses designed for students who wish to extend their knowledge of their own career or acquire knowledge of a new field.

"Post-experience courses use all the elements of the undergraduate teaching system; some courses carry credit that may count towards a BA degree if a student decides to register for a degree programme later. A Course Certificate is awarded to students who complete the course work and pass a final examination. Students who finish the course but do not sit the examination receive a Letter of Course Completion.

"In 1973, the first year the programme was offered, 2,012 students took post-experience courses. In 1974 there were 3,022 students and 5,311 students have enrolled for 1975 courses."

TABLE I COURSE COMPONENTS

Course Components	Student Response	Approximate Time Spent
1. Printed material (a) Correspondence texts (b) Set books (c) Recommended reading	Systematic reading	65%
2. Television and radio (a) Course broadcasts on television (b) Course broadcasts on radio	Regular viewing and listening	10%
3. Tuition and counselling (a) Individual group tuition (b) Individual and group counselling (c) Summer schools	Contact with tutors and counsellors; attending study centres; meeting other students; attending summer schools	15%
4. Assignments and Assessments (a) Practical experiments and self-assessment (b) Tutor-marked assignments (c) Computor-marked assignments (d) Examinations	Doing practical work or projects; doing written work; taking examinations	10%

"Table 1 shows various components of the teaching system and shows approximately how much time an average student spends on each. A course credit requires about 10-14 hours of study per week for a total of 32 weeks. Most of a student's time is spent at home where he receives correspondence material by post and watches and listens to broadcasts.

"During the year students can attend local study centres close to their homes for tutorials and discussion groups. In addition, some courses require a one-week residential summer school.

"Throughout the course students take self-administered tests and do written assignments. Assignment grades combined with a final examination determine whether a student earns his credit."

Correspondence material

"The correspondence text is the most important component of a course; broadly, each text 'unit' represents a week's work. A full course lasting 32 weeks will consist of 32 texts bound in ten to fifteen volumes and sent to students at regular intervals through the year.

"The units form the core of the week's work and are integrated with reading material, assignments and broadcasts."

Home experiment kits

"In order to overcome the problem of teaching science and technology at a distance, students are sent home experiment kits which enable them to do basic experimental work in their own homes."

Television and radio

"Almost every Open University course incorporates both radio and television broadcasts.These programmes, produced in partnership with the British Broadcasting Corporation, are transmitted nationally on BBC2 and VHF Radio 3 and 4. Transmission is usually in the early evenings Monday to Friday, on Saturday and Sunday mornings and early weekday mornings around breakfast time.

"Each foundation course has a weekly radio and television programme. Second, third and fourth level courses usually have fewer broadcasts. Along with the correspondence material, students are sent broadcast notes that help link the programmes with written material."

Tuition and counselling

"Although the correspondence material and broadcasts are designed to help students learn independently, personal tuition and counselling is also available. Part-time tutors - mainly recruited from the teaching staffs of other universities and colleges - are each responsible for about 20 Open University students. Tutors grade and comment on written assignments, hold face-to-face tutorials for groups of students at local study centres, and are available to help individuals with their study problems.

"Students meet their tutors and counsellors at study centres close to their homes.There are more than 260 study centres - 213 in England, 19 in Scotland, 22 in Wales, nine in Northern Ireland and one each on Jersey and the Isle of Man.

"Study centres are usually located in local colleges and education centres. They are equipped with television, radio, and tape replay facilities for students who miss broadcasts or want to view them again. One-hundred-and-seventy centres are equipped with computer terminals."

Summer schools

"For foundation courses and some higher level courses (particularly in science and technology) students must attend a one-week residential summer school. These are held on the campuses of residential universities between mid-July and early September. In 1975, 14 host universities are being used for 234 Open University summer schools.

"The schools are staffed by Open University academics and part-time tutors and often by teaching staff of the host university. Summer school is an intensive week of full-time study in a traditional university setting. The residential week includes lectures, tutorials, field work, laboratory work and informal discussions."

Assignments

"Assignments are an important part of the teaching system because they allow students to assess their own progress. Tutor-marked assignments (TMAs) are mainly written work, and range from a series of short answers to medium length essays. There is also a trend in higher-level courses to project-type assignments which involve experimental or research work and the collection and analysis of data. Computer-marked assignments (CMAs) consist of multiple choice questions. Students complete and return these to the University's headquarters in Milton Keynes where they are marked by the University computer."

A recent article[x] by the head of the university's survey research department, Naomi McIntosh, attempted to sum up what it had achieved in its first five years.

Among the points it made were:

"OU students only appear to be predominantly middle-class when the student's own present occupations are used to derive their social class. If we take their father's occupation at the time the students left school, as is done by the University Central Council for Admissions for undergraduates entering conventional universities, then a very different picture emerges.

"In 1971, 29 per cent of the students entering conventional universities had fathers in manual occupations whereas the corresponding figure for OU students was 52 per cent. Even allowing for the decline in manual occupations between 1951, the model school leaving year for OU students, and 1971, the OU still shows a marked improvement over conventional universities.

"Although progress has been made, the OU is still far from being truly open. At every stage from actually hearing of the OU to accepting the offer of a place, barriers exist which discriminate against particular types of people, many of whom have been deprived of educational opportunities in the past.

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x The Times Higher Education Supplement, 19-12-75.

"For example, students taking each foundation course, and quite a number of later level courses, must attend a one-week summer school. For manual workers this will generally mean that they have to sacrifice one of their two or three weeks annual holiday.

"A second reason is that to obtain ordinary degree, six credits are needed, but some students are awarded up to three credit exemptions depending upon how much higher education they have already received.

"The majority of manual workers, and all of those without experience of higher education, receive no credit exemptions. As most of these can only cope with studying for one credit each year this means that it will take them at least six years to obtain a degree, whereas many others may graduate in two or three years.

"An earlier study has shown that, compared to conventional universities, the average recurrent cost per graduate would be less at the Open University even with an 85 per cent drop-out rate. Another study showed that the variable cost per student-course was, with one exception, lower in the Open University than elsewhere.

"These encouraging verdicts need to be qualified in the light of certain developments. Two factors in particular may make the Open University less cost-effective in future years than it was in its early days.

"Firstly, the through-put of students is declining, in other words students are now taking fewer credits per head per year. Less students are willing or able to fit in the 20 hours or more of study necessary for two courses with their normal working life."

"As the Open University attracts more students with no experience of higher education and with physically demanding jobs, this trend is likely to continue. Therefore, in this one respect at least, greater openness can lead to a decline in cost effectiveness.

"Although the OU is attracting relatively more students from manual occupations and with lower educational qualifications, they are now doing relatively worse in their first year of OU studies.

"Their progress on future courses and the performance of subsequent, intakes must obviously be carefully monitored to see whether this apparent trend is real.

"Significant numbers of such people do succeed at the OU, but it is clearly more difficult for them to do so. There appears to be a danger that the OU's door will become a revolving door which rapidly deposits many disadvantaged students back on the pavement."

The Open University, which now has 50,000 students is the one genuinely new form of higher education that has been introduced in Britain since the 1960s. Its only competitor in engaging a "mass" audience is the British Broadcasting Corporation which gets large audiences for its further education programmes but which is not in any sense a higher education institution.

There is, however, no doubt that if the will existed, several experiments with new forms of higher education could be introduced as developments within existing institutions, particularly the universities. x

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x See also Open Learning. Paris, The Unesco Press, 1976.

INNOVATIONS DANS L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR

par le Professeur Ricardo MARIN IBAÑEZ

I. REFLEXIONS THEORIQUES

Afin de pouvoir formuler une définition ou de tracer un tableau concernant les principaux types d'innovations dans l'enseignement supérieur, il faut tenir compte de tous les éléments fondamentaux qui les composent. La présence ou l'absence de tous ces éléments, ou leurs modalités - lorsque celles-ci apparaîtront - nous permettront de classifier les innovations les plus significatives.

1. Indicateurs pour une définition et une typologie des nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur.

Il semble intéressant d'analyser quatre aspects - "clés" des institutions d'enseignement supérieur :

- les finalités institutionnelles
- les aspects administratifs
- les aspects scientifiques et pédagogiques
- les rapports avec la société.

Ces quatre aspects nous permettront de détecter les principales innovations. Etudions plus attentivement chacun d'eux.

1) Finalités institutionnelles

Formes traditionnelles	Formes innovatrices
1. Réception et transmission de la culture	
2. Préparation professionnelle de haut niveau	
3. Recherche	
4. Création de leaders sociaux	
5. Centre de diffusion culturelle de la communauté	
6. Education permanente	

2) Rapports entre l'enseignement et la société

Aspects innovateurs
1. Ajustement des titres à la demande sociale, en quantité et en qualité
2. Stages et/ou formation sur les lieux de travail
3. Reconnaissance du travail en tant que formation
4. Programmes conjoints avec d'autres institutions culturelles, professionnelles ou récréatives

3. Administration et gestion de l'enseignement supérieur

	Formes traditionnelles	Formes innovatrices
1. Fondements, dispositions légales	Source unique	Pluralité coordonnée des sources
2. Financement	Formes rigides et préétablies	Nouvelles formes des entreprises
3. Centres de décision	Unique; sans participation	Multiples; participation de tous les concernés
4. Installations	Exclusives et closes; uniquement pour l'élève traditionnel	Utilisation intégrale de celles de la communauté; ouvertes à la communauté
5. Personnel : élève	Il étudie seulement; a terminé l'enseignement secondaire; est âgé de 18-24 ans	Elève qui travaille; objet d'attention pendant toute sa vie
professeur	Il enseigne et fait de la recherche uniquement	Professionnel qualifié
6. Horaire; calendrier	Semblable à l'horaire ouvrable; fermé une grande partie de la journée et de l'année	Disponible tout le temps; horaire et calendrier souples pour répondre à n'importe quelle demande

4. Aspects scientifiques et pédagogiques

	Formes traditionnelles	Formes innovatrices
1. Objectifs de l'enseignement	Non formulés; vagues; non "évaluables"	Objectifs professionnels "opérationnels"; évaluables
2. Contenus	Obligatoires; peu actualisés; cours rigides (par année et par semestre); disciplines académiques	En partie optionnels; actualisés; modulaires; unités capitalisables et distribuées avec souplesse interdisciplinaires
3. Méthodes	Livresques, orales passives, répétitives	Actives; dynamique de groupe; redécouverte; simulation
4. Technologie	Tableau noir; moyens rudimentaires	Moyens audio-visuels; cinéma, radio, télévision; matériel auto-éducatif; ordinateur; enseignement à distance
5. Evaluation	Discontinue; mnémonique; sélective	Continue; formes variées; liée aux objectifs

Ces tableaux constituent un point de départ. Ils nécessiteront de nombreuses retouches afin de pouvoir éventuellement servir à détecter et classer les innovations, et à effectuer un inventaire de celles qui existent dans les pays européens; il s'agit d'étudier les problèmes qu'on a voulu résoudre lors de leur création, les difficultés auxquelles on s'est heurté, les objectifs qui ont été atteints. Ainsi, les expériences positives de chacun constitueront-elles un stimulant et inciteront les autres à tenter des modèles semblables, afin de résoudre les difficultés auxquelles l'enseignement supérieur se trouve actuellement confronté.

Il ne s'agit pas d'espérer trouver une panacée universelle grâce à des formules plus ou moins simplistes. L'idéal serait en réalité de trouver un large éventail d'alternatives offrant diverses solutions possibles aux problèmes qui se posent.

Cependant, il semble que l'étude de toutes les modalités innovatrices, en vue de parvenir à des définitions et à un classement - nous appellerions cette méthode : "maximaliste" - pourrait être inscrite dans le cadre d'activités ultérieures à ce colloque, étant donné le peu de temps dont dispose la présente réunion pour l'ensemble de ses travaux.

Le document de travail a retenu trois variables d'un intérêt certain. Ces trois variables relèvent, d'une façon générale, de ce que nous avons appelé: administration; elles mentionnent trois données : élève qui travaille; horaire compatible avec des occupations professionnelles; corps enseignant qui, tout en exerçant une profession exigeant une formation supérieure, peut faire profiter l'enseignement de ses expériences.

Etant donné la brièveté du colloque, nous pourrions concentrer nos travaux sur les innovations définies par ces trois variables en les considérant d'une manière stricte, c'est-à-dire conjointe, afin d'exclure de notre analyse une quantité d'institutions traditionnelles dont les problèmes nous déborderaient.

Néanmoins, il faut reconnaître que ces trois critères ont une valeur inégale. Le point décisif est celui qui concerne la population scolaire âgée de plus de 24 ans et qui travaille. Ce critère conditionne pratiquement tous les autres.

Le deuxième facteur est également important puisqu'il s'agit d'établir un horaire compatible avec des activités d'ordre professionnel. Cependant, ce point a des incidences diverses selon que l'enseignement est donné dans :

- des établissements traditionnels
- sur le lieu de travail
- par l'enseignement à distance.

Le troisième facteur est peut-être moins déterminant, sans être pour cela moins valable.

En résumé, les deux premiers facteurs suffiraient pour le moment à tracer une typologie conforme aux lignes fondamentales de ce colloque. Il serait cependant souhaitable d'ajouter à ces variables, d'autres innovations qui pourraient se produire, et de les étudier comme un ensemble, afin de comprendre toute nouvelle évolution.

2. Rapports structurels, fonctionnels et pédagogiques entre les nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur et les institutions de type traditionnel.

Les nouvelles situations exigent de nouvelles structures. La demande croissante d'accès à une formation supérieure - répondant aux besoins d'une société de plus en plus technique et aux aspirations des individus pour l'application du droit universel à l'éducation - impose la création de nouvelles formes d'enseignement, s'inspirant de l'éducation permanente. Les deux alternatives fondamentales sont les suivantes :

- création d'institutions nouvelles
- innovations dans le cadre des institutions traditionnelles.

Ces deux alternatives peuvent couvrir une des nombreuses variables déjà énumérées et donner lieu à de nombreuses applications. Toutes deux sont parfaitement compatibles.

L'introduction d'innovations dans des structures traditionnelles risque évidemment de se heurter à des résistances, surtout lorsque ces structures ont répondu avec succès aux besoins d'une époque déterminée. Par ailleurs, la création d'institutions nouvelles peut impliquer certains dangers tels que l'isolement, la multiplication d'efforts dispersés, ou une superposition de fonctions menant à un certain gaspillage des moyens. C'est pour cette raison qu'une planification en la matière devrait tenir compte des impératifs suivants :

a) souplesse administrative en ce qui concerne la création ou la reconnaissance d'institutions qui répondent à un nouveau type de demande, qu'elles soient nées ou non d'initiatives de l'Etat;

b) établissement d'un cadre législatif afin d'assurer l'unité et la variété du système d'enseignement supérieur, tout en permettant et en suscitant des modalités nombreuses, répondant aux différentes exigences sociales, professionnelles et culturelles;

c) établissement de rapports organiques entre toutes les institutions, reconnaissant une validité égale aux institutions qui répondent aux mêmes exigences;

d) octroi de facilités pour passer d'une institution à une autre;

e) attention prioritaire aux secteurs les plus négligés et, dans ce cas concret, à la population laborieuse.

Tout cela exige comme condition préalable, une analyse prudente et un vaste échange d'expériences. Le CEPES pourrait jouer à cet égard un rôle important en publiant une ou plusieurs monographies qui étudieraient de manière approfondie et critique quelques exemples significatifs, en tenant compte des critères délimitant les différents types d'innovations.

3. Répercussion des nouvelles formes institutionnelles sur la mobilité sociale.

Plusieurs questions doivent être analysées :

- quel est l'impact des formes actuelles sur la mobilité sociale ?
- quelles sont les conséquences, en cas d'élargissement de ces formes ?
- comment détecter à tout moment les progrès ou les failles qui pourraient se produire en dépit des prévisions ?
- quelle est, parmi les autres facteurs de mobilité sociale, l'influence spécifique de l'enseignement supérieur ?

- quelle est la méthodologie la plus appropriée pour mesurer l'efficacité respective des différentes formes ?

Les facteurs en jeu sont nombreux et il ne convient pas de tirer des conclusions hâtives. Dans la collecte des données et des expériences en vue d'établir un classement approprié, il semble indispensable de dresser un tableau d'indicateurs et de préciser la méthodologie la plus adéquate. On pourrait rattacher ces indicateurs au facteur de mobilité sociale, mais il serait peut-être utile de les placer dans un cadre plus large. Toute éducation, et, il va de soi, l'éducation supérieure, poursuit certains grands objectifs d'ordre général :

- épanouissement de la personnalité
- développement économique et social
- progrès culturel

Chacun d'eux peut se subdiviser en des objectifs plus particuliers, pouvant servir à mesurer l'efficacité propre à l'enseignement supérieur.

Il s'agit en somme, au-delà des hypothèses les plus plausibles, de déterminer l'impact de ces trois critères. On trouvera ci-dessous un tableau provisoire qui pourrait servir à l'analyse des résultats :

a) Développement personnel :

- corporel (santé physique et mentale)
- intellectuel
- esthétique
- moral
- philosophique (vision du monde, convictions et attitudes fondamentales)

b) Progrès culturel :

- scientifique
- technique
- artistique

c) Développement économique et social :

- mobilité réelle de la population : géographique
  professionnelle
  sociale
- application du principe de l'égalité des chances
- rentabilité économique.

Quant à la méthodologie, chaque facteur exige des techniques spécifiques. Rappelons simplement quelques méthodes d'ordre général :

- enquêtes
- interviews
- analyses de cas
- analyses de produits
- statistiques - descriptives et analytiques - permettant de préciser la signification et la représentativité des renseignements obtenus.

II. FORMES NOUVELLES DANS L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR EN ESPAGNE

1. L'Université nationale d'éducation à distance (U.N.E.D.)

a) Création.

Cette Université fut créée en 1972 en vue de faciliter l'accès à l'enseignement supérieur à tous ceux qui pour des raisons de résidence, de travail ou pour d'autres motifs, ne pouvaient assister aux cours organisés dans les universités existantes. Elle ouvrit ses portes lors de l'année académique 1972/73; l'année 1975/76 est donc la quatrième de son existence. Son siège central se trouve à Madrid (Cité universitaire); elle comporte 18 centres régionaux répartis dans tout le pays, et 6 centres situés dans de grandes entreprises.

b) Typologie.

80% des élèves inscrits sont âgés de plus de 25 ans. Presque tous ces étudiants travaillent et on compte parmi eux des mères de famille et même des retraités. Le tableau par âge des étudiants inscrits ayant dépassé 25 ans est le suivant :

26 à 30 ans	4.778
31 à 35	4.002
36 à 40	2.085
41 à 45	1.364
46 à 50	464
51 à 55	409
56 à 60	125
61 à 65	43
plus de 65	77

19% des étudiants résident dans des villes de moins de 10.000 habitants; 34% dans des villes de plus de 50.000 habitants; 22% dans des villes de plus d'un million. 34% habitent dans des villes où il existe une université et 29% dans des localités possédant un centre associé à l'U.N.E.D. 9% seulement assistent régulièrement aux cours dans ces centres. Les cours du soir se terminent généralement à 21 heures, 22 heures ou même 23 heures, comme à Cadix.

c) Relations avec l'enseignement traditionnel.

Les programmes de l'U.N.E.D. sont alignés sur les programmes en vigueur dans les autres universités. La coordination entre les universités traditionnelles et l'U.N.E.D. s'effectue par l'intermédiaire de la Direction générale aux universités et à la recherche. Les diplômes de l'Université à distance ont la même valeur que ceux qui sont octroyés par les autres établissements d'enseignement supérieur et les étudiants peuvent passer librement d'un type d'établissement à un autre.

d) Importance quantitative.

En 1973, l'U.N.E.D. comptait 2.500 étudiants. En 1975 ce chiffre s'est élevé à 17.110, dont 13.045 hommes et 4.065 femmes.

e) Formation à caractère professionnel.

Le programme de l'U.N.E.D. pour cette année couvre les disciplines suivantes: droit, histoire et géographie, philologie, philosophie et sciences de l'éducation, sciences économiques, sciences des entreprises, physique, chimie, mathématiques, génie industriel (spécialisation en électricité, branche de l'électronique). Les études ont le même caractère professionnel et disciplinaire que dans les autres universités, afin d'établir un maximum d'équivalence.

f) Contenu et méthodes d'enseignement.

Des manuels correspondant à 150 matières enseignées ont été élaborés par 77 agrégés d'université. Le matériel envoyé aux étudiants se compose comme suit : schéma de chaque unité didactique; bibliographie sur le sujet; explications complémentaires; exercices d'auto-évaluation; activités optionnelles. D'autres exercices d'évaluation sont envoyés aux centres associés pour la notation correspondante.

Des émission radiophoniques sont en outre transmises par la "Radio Nationale d'Espagne" et des séries de cassettes ont déjà été enregistrées, portant sur 25 matières et 25 leçons magistrales, dont quelques-unes ont un caractère interdisciplinaire.

Les centres associés dispensent certains cours réguliers à des heures se situant en dehors des horaires de travail professionnel, sur des matières intéressant un nombre suffisant d'étudiants; ils organisent également des exercices pratiques, principalement pendant les périodes de vacances.

L'étudiant a la possibilité de poser toutes les questions qu'il désire, soit par écrit, soit par téléphone, et dispose en même temps des indications qui lui sont fournies à l'occasion de la correction de ses exercices.

Outre sa participation volontaire aux activités des centres associés et l'exposé personnel de ses problèmes, l'étudiant est tenu de se présenter deux fois par an dans ces centres, afin d'y passer les examens prescrits.

g) Mobilité sociale.

60% des élèves inscrits n'ont antérieurement accompli que le cycle d'études primaires. L'accès à l'Université est ouvert aux personnes âgées de plus de 25 ans, ayant satisfait aux épreuves d'entrée. Parmi les parents des étudiants inscrits à l'U.N.E.D., 13% seulement possèdent un diplôme d'études supérieures et 38% sont des salariés. Une enquête réalisée parmi les étudiants a révélé que pour 39% d'entre eux, l'obtention d'un diplôme universitaire constituait un espoir de promotion professionnelle.

La déperdition est cependant élevée, ainsi qu'il ressort du tableau ci-dessous exprimé en pourcentages :

	Droit	Sc. économiques et sc. de l'entreprise	Lettres	Sciences et sc. de l'ingénieur
Etudiants qui se sont présentés aux examens	44,4	26,44	39,54	17,19
Etudiants ayant réussi, par rapport à ceux qui se sont présentés	61,60	31,21	53,68	45,47
Etudiants ayant réussi, par rapport à ceux qui se sont inscrits	27,35	8,26	21,22	7,98

h) Administration et financement.

Comme il s'agit d'une institution d'Etat, le financement est assuré sur le budget octroyé aux universités. Les professeurs sont recrutés à temps complet ou à temps partiel. En ce qui concerne les étudiants, les droits d'inscription, par matière, s'élèvent entre 400 et 500 pesetas, c'est-à-dire environ 7 à 9 dollars. 17% des étudiants jouissent d'une inscription gratuite et 6% ne payent que la moitié des droits prévus. Le matériel didactique coûte environ 1.250 pesetas par matière, soit un peu plus de 20 dollars.

Les coûts unitaires n'ont pas encore été étudiés, mais il semble bien que ces coûts soient moins élevés que pour l'enseignement traditionnel, les moyens utilisés (cours par correspondance, radio, autres moyens audio-visuels) permettant d'atteindre une audience beaucoup plus vaste.

i) Evaluation.

Les programmes étant conçus sur une période de cinq ans, aucun cycle d'étude n'est encore terminé à l'heure actuelle. On ne peut donc appliquer les indicateurs habituels d'évaluation. Cependant, il est permis d'affirmer dès à présent que des résultats appréciables ont été obtenus, en ce qui concerne notamment les aspects de promotion culturelle et sociale des étudiants. Bien que les chiffres des inscrits soient encore peu élevés pour l'ensemble du pays, l'aspect le plus positif semble résider dans une tendance très nette à l'expansion de ce type d'enseignement.

III. INNOVATIONS PARTIELLES DANS LE CADRE DES UNIVERSITES TRADITIONNELLES.

1. Les élèves libres.

Au cours de l'année académique 1973/74, il y avait 64.000 élèves libres sur les 407.000 étudiants inscrits dans les différentes universités. Leur participation est individuelle. Ils se mettent en contact avec d'autres étudiants et assistent quelquefois à des cours, lorsque leurs horaires de travail professionnel le leur permettent. Dans certains cas, ils entrent préalablement en rapport avec leurs professeurs qui orientent alors leurs études et leur font effectuer quelques travaux pratiques. Dans les branches où ces travaux pratiques constituent une composante fondamentale des études (pour les sciences de l'ingénieur, par exemple), il n'y a pas de tels élèves libres.

La proportion d'élèves libres qui échouent aux examens est de loin supérieure à celle des étudiants régulièrement inscrits. Cependant, il s'agit d'une forme d'accès à l'enseignement supérieur dont les effectifs se recrutent principalement parmi les professeurs de l'enseignement primaire.

2. Les adultes de plus de 25 ans.

L'article 36.3 de la Loi Générale d'Education de 1970, déclare : "Les adultes de plus de 25 ans, n'ayant pas accompli les études secondaires, auront également accès à l'enseignement universitaire, sous quelque forme que ce soit, à condition de satisfaire aux épreuves d'entrée réglementaires, fixées sur proposition des universités."

Chaque université organise annuellement deux sessions d'admission : l'une au mois de novembre-décembre, l'autre au mois de février-mars. Au cours de ces épreuves, l'évaluation personnelle des candidats s'effectue sur la base de son curriculum vitae et de son niveau de culture générale, en fonction notamment des

connaissances qu'il a pu acquérir à travers les moyens d'information de masse. La première épreuve de ce type a été organisée en 1970.

3. Les Instituts de sciences de l'éducation.

Tout professeur doit posséder, outre le diplôme exigé par le niveau d'enseignement auquel il se rattache, une formation pédagogique appropriée, dispensée dans les Instituts de sciences de l'éducation (I.C.E.). L'obtention du certificat d'aptitude pédagogique (C.A.P.) est une condition nécessaire à l'exercice de l'enseignement.

Créés en 1969, ces Instituts existent dans toutes les universités espagnoles et relèvent de l'Institut national des sciences de l'éducation (I.N.C.I.E.). Ils sont chargés d'assurer la formation et le perfectionnement des professeurs, et d'effectuer des recherches et des expériences dans le domaine de l'éducation à l'aide de centres expérimentaux.

Etant donné que les étudiants inscrits dans ces Instituts sont déjà porteurs d'un diplôme de licence et enseignent pour la plupart dans des établissements publics ou privés, les cours sont nécessairement organisés en fonction de cette situation particulière et ont lieu soit le soir, soit les jours fériés, soit pendant les périodes de vacances. Le programme pour l'obtention du C.A.P. comporte 30 heures de cours, pour moitié théoriques et pour moitié pratiques.

Comme on l'a déjà signalé, ces Instituts effectuent également de la recherche. Les Plans nationaux de recherches éducatives, coordonnés par l'I.N.C.I.E. et poursuivis à travers le réseau des I.C.E., ont été inaugurés en 1970 sur une base annuelle. Des thèmes d'actualité sont sélectionnés par chaque université en fonction des ressources dont elles disposent. La somme totale allouée aux recherches éducatives dans le 5e Plan national actuellement en cours, s'élève à 34.257.000 pesetas, soit un peu moins de 600.000 dollars.

Les professeurs, chargés de cours théoriques et de travaux pratiques, sont choisis à tous les niveaux de l'enseignement et dans toutes les carrières professionnelles. Une telle souplesse existe également dans le cadre de la recherche où les équipes ont un caractère véritablement interdisciplinaire.

Le caractère innovateur de ces Institutions est plus évident encore en ce qui concerne les aspects méthodologiques. Les voies utilisées (participation, dynamique de groupe, expérimentation, emploi des moyens audio-visuels) les ont placées à l'avant-garde de la réforme éducative en Espagne.

PART-TIME STUDY IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA

by Professor Dr. Jirí Hericka

Part-time study started in Czechoslovakia in 1948 with the training of teachers. In 1952 it was introduced into most subjects at the university level. In 1954/55 10,010 students enrolled in new forms of higher education and 11,065 in full-time study. This means that 47.5% of all new students in the schools of higher education were studying in the new forms.

The quantitative growth of part-time study at institutes of higher education in Czechoslovakia can be seen in Table 1. The percentage of students in new forms of higher education differs in the different fields and at different schools, as is shown in Table 2.

There are hardly any students in new forms at the medical schools, but at the Charles University in Prague, in 1974/75, about 40% of students at the school of law and 36.7% at the school of education were studying in new forms of higher education.

The part-time study system has three forms:-

1) Evening courses. This form is concentrated into several days of the week and the classes usually take place in the evening. Evening courses are intended for people living in the immediate neighbourhood of the university;

2) Part-time (correspondence) study. This type of study is a form of self-education, carried out with the help of textbooks and other literature, and supplemented by regular consultations (usually ten to fifteen times in the semester over a period of approximately eight hours) and/or courses, lasting several days, comprised mainly of tutorials and laboratory exercises;

3) External study with an individually worked out curriculum. This form is suitable for students who wish to specialize and who already have considerable practical experience. This type of student comes into contact with the respective university virtually only when preparing his study-plan and taking the examinations.

The curriculum for all types of part-time study is derived from the full-time study programme. The time spent by part-time students at school is much shorter. One could say roughly that the ratio of total hours spent at school for full-time study, evening courses and part-time (correspondence) study is 4.5:2.5:1.5. The duration of part-time study is one year longer than for full-time. The main form used in Czechoslovakia is part-time (correspondence) study. In the technical universities in 1973 92.15% of all part-time students were studying in correspondence courses and only 5.15% in evening courses and 2.7% in external study.

The graduates from the new forms of higher education have the same status as graduates from full-time study.

All students who have obtained a secondary school certificate and have done their military service (if required) can be admitted to the new forms of higher education. For this type of study the students are usually

recommended by their place of employment, but this recommendation is not necessary for admission. By law, only the students who have a recommendation from their place of employment are entitled to the following advantages, which are also available to the part-time students:

1) in evening courses 12 days paid leave of absence a year, with the exception of teachers (their teaching duties are shortened by one hour a week);

2) in part-time (correspondence) study 14 days paid leave of absence a year with the exception of teachers (their teaching duties are shortened by one hour a week);

3) two days paid leave of absence for each examination;

4) five days paid leave of absence for short tutorials and laboratory exercises;

5) eighty days paid leave of absence for diploma-work and for the final examination. Teachers have sixty days paid leave of absence for this purpose.

There are further advantages for mothers with children under 15 years (5 days paid leave of absence). Part-time students are entitled to the same reduced rate for transport to school by train or bus as full-time students. They also get meals at a reduced rate during the short term courses and final examination.

The above is an outline of part-time study in Czechoslovakia. Now I would like to answer briefly the questions in the main topics for discussion of this symposium.

According to general opinion in our country the above mentioned new forms of higher education are considered to be complementary to the traditional existing forms. These new forms can also be used to fulfil the needs not covered by the traditional structures, either for economic reasons or with regard to the individual needs of the students. From our experience the above-mentioned new forms of higher education are capable of performing all the functions at present undertaken by the traditional institutions. It is also possible to switch from part-time to full-time study or vice versa.

In conclusion I would like to stress that the decline in the number of students in new forms of higher education stopped three years ago and that part-time study is seen as an important component of the higher education system of Czechoslovakia for the future.

Table 1

Number of students in Czechoslovakia, by type of study, 1960/61 to 1974/75

Academic year	Total number of university students	Number of students in new forms of study	Percentage of students in new forms of study
1960/61	94040	24740	26.30%
1964/65	144777	52095	35.98
1965/66	144990	52095	34.46
1966/67	142373	46227	32.47
1967/68	137497	38161	27.75
1968/69	137654	34059	24.47
1969/70	133514	29513	22.10
1970/71	131099	25465	19.42
1971/72	128124	21997	17.17
1972/73	127957	21157	16.53
1973/74	135874	23811	17.52
1974/75	144325	27372	18.96

Table 2

Number of students, by type of study and type of institution, academic year 1974/75

Type of institution	Total number of students	Number of students in new forms of study	Percentage of students in new forms of study
Universities	62921	11960	19.00%
Technical universities	51974	8169	15.71
Agricultural universities	13975	2356	16.86
Schools of economics	13456	4604	34.21
Academies of art	1999	283	14.15

ADULT AND PART-TIME EDUCATION IN THE NETHERLANDS

by Professor Ruud A. de Moor

1. Introduction

In the working paper, prepared for the Symposium on new forms of higher education in Europe held in Bucharest from 13-15 January 1976, three criteria are proposed to define new forms of higher education. In this paper we shall describe how far and for what purpose these three elements are already realised in the existing system and, second, what role they will play in future reforms.

2. The present situation

1) General view

From the viewpoint of equal educational opportunities there are, in the Netherlands, three categories which deserve special attention: the older generations, women and the working class. Although the inequality of educational opportunity has been reduced, it is still considerable.

Table 1 indicates, roughly, the educational gap between the generations, roughly because the older generations may have participated in formal education at an older age, full-time or part-time, or may have benefited from correspondence courses and training in industry, government agencies or trade unions.

Table 1 [1] Percentage of 12-19 and 18-25 year age groups, participating in general secondary and vocational education (and eventually in university education)

Year	Age group	
	12-19 years	18-25 years
1930	26.6	1.1
1938	30.3	1.1
1950	45.2	2.3
1960	63.5	3.1
1968	69.8	4.8

Note: Education has long been compulsory up to 14, then 15 and since 1975 up to 16 years. This implies that the percentage having some years at least of secondary education is higher than mentioned in the table. As regards university education, it must be born in mind that this is only a part of higher education.

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1) Source: Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek. Zeventig jaar statistiek in tijdreeksen. Staatsuitgeverij, 's-Gravenhage, 1970, p.38.

Figures on the participation of younger generations of men and women in various types of education are given in Table 2. The definitions of the types of education are:

Part-time education: All education involving less than 16 hours classroom teaching a week, but exclusive of the apprentice system and the social education system.

The apprentice system: A combination of general education in the part-time system and training in industry, based on articles of apprenticeship.

Social education: Education aimed at personal development and social skills of young people.

Table 2 [2] Participation in education, by type of education, age group and sex in 1958 and 1971 (in percentages)

Type of education	Male			Female		
	15 years	18 years	20 years	15 years	18 years	20 years
Full-time education						
1958	62	20	10	48	11	5
1971	89	38	22	79	21	9
Part-time education						
1958	7	10	4	2*	3	2
1971	1	7	6	ø	3	3
Apprentice system						
1958	6	9	1	1	0	0
1971	3	14	4	1	ø	ø
Social education system						
1958	-	-	-	-	-	-
1971	4	2	1	9	2	1

* ø = between 0.0 and 0.51

Table 1 and 2 are based on data concerning the total population. From a sample survey [3] it can be calculated that from the generation between 30 and 50 years about 46% has had less than 8 years of full-time education.

From a national sample of boys and girls who left primary school in 1963/64 and 1964/65, the educational career has been investigated. In Table 3 the transfer percentages are given, for boys of various social classes, to various types of education.

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2) Ibid.
3) Stichting Teleac. Studeren na het dagonderwijs. Utrecht, 1974, p.36.

Table 1* Percentage of boys transferring from primary school to various types of education, by social class

Type of education	Social class		
	lower	middle	higher
long cycle general secondary education	12	28	66
short cycle general secondary education	25	35	26
short cycle vocational education	50	29	4
extended primary education	8	6	3
no full-time education	5	2	1
TOTAL	100	100	100

* Source: Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek. Schoolkeuze en Schoolloopbaan bij het Voortgezet Onderwijs. Staatsuitgeverij, 's-Gravenhage, 1972.

Since 1964/65 the disparity described has probably been reduced, but certainly not eliminated. And although differences in hereditary ability may partly explain differences in educational performance, social variables are in any case prejudicial to the education opportunities of the workers' children.

The unequal participation in secondary education has an effect on participation in university education. 10% of university students are from working class families, 40% from the higher class families, whereas workers constitute 50% of the labour force and the higher class 5%.[4]

Conclusions

(1) Full-time education of the majority of people 30 years and older does not exceed 8 years.

(2) There is a growing educational gap between older and younger generations.

(3) At present women still have less educational opportunities than men.

(4) Educational opportunities are heavily dependent on social class.

If new forms of education have to aim at new categories of students, underprivileged up till now, then three target groups invite our attention: older generations, women and working class people.

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4) Contouren van een toekomstig onderwijsbestel. Publicatie van het Ministerie van Onderwijs en Wetenschappen, 1975, p.10.

ii) Part-time education in general

Part-time education as such is certainly not a recent form of education. But as is suggested by Table 2, in the traditional system it is considered to be a second best facility. Traditionally part-time education has, as its main objective, to provide education to those people who would not otherwise have had the chance of further education. This explains why its role is decreasing for the 15-18 year olds. Equality of educational opportunity is successively achieved in primary, secondary and higher education. Although cultural variables are still unfavourable for equal educational opportunities for girls, and cultural and social class variables adversely affect the school performance of some of the working class youth and their educational choice, the opportunity for secondary education is now taken by all those who are "education prone". To increase the educational opportunities for the up till now underprivileged groups, more is needed than the creation of facilities, an increased income and the elimination of financial barriers. This may explain why the role of part-time education is decreasing in secondary education, although equal opportunity has not yet been achieved. The slightly increased participation of 20 year olds in part-time education may be interpreted as an indication that higher education is still in an early stage of democratisation. But a definite conclusion needs a more detailed analysis.

The apprentice system is not, as part-time education mainly is, a substitute for full-time education. To a great extent it is complementary to school education to meet the specialised demands of the place of work. Extended formal schooling for a majority of young people does not necessarily imply therefore a decreased role for the apprentice system.

The social education system however aims at better preparation for (social) life for those young working people who have had a relatively short education (now up to the age of 16) and who do not participate in any other type of education. This system is a compulsory part-time system.

Table 3 does not include the system of correspondence courses.

A national sample survey [5] gave more detailed information. The a-select sample numbered 1639 Dutch citizens of 15 years old or more; the information given in this paper refers to 1377 respondents who did not attend full-time education at the time of the investigation. Some conclusions are:

(1) 42% participated in some form of education after completion of full-time education.

(2) It is rare for people of 40 years or over to participate.

(3) There is a positive correlation between the length of full-time education and participation in some form of education after completion of full-time education. 20% of people, having had 6 years of full-time education or less, did participate, whereas 64% did of those who had had 11 years or more.

(4) Men participate more than women (50% as against 36%).

The forms of education referred to in this survey were at all levels and of all types, vocational (mostly) as well as general.

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5) Teleac, op.cit.

A more restricted survey[6] among part-time students of the university of Utrecht and of some non-university institutions of higher education in Utrecht (N = 1063) indicated that

(5) in the age distribution the modus was 25 years and the median 29 years, female students being younger than male students;

(6) the great majority of students had the secondary education level normally required for admission;

(7) one third of the female students and one fifth of the male students are from relatively prosperous families (fathers earning more than D.fl. 36,000, a year).

These two surveys indicated that the part-time system, including correspondence courses, are not really serving any new categories of students. Although there are no surveys available which enable a more detailed comparison of full-time and part-time students in higher education, it does not seem too risky to conclude that the part-time system is hardly reducing the educational gap between older and younger generations, women and men or the working class and other social classes.

iii) Part-time higher education in more detail

Part-time higher education is provided mainly by educational institutions and by private organizations making a profit through educational services. The main methods used are classroom teaching, correspondence courses and, in some cases, television.

Universities are institutions for full-time education; only rarely do they have departments catering explicitly for the needs of part-time students. Due to the provisions of the University Education Act there are, however, an unknown number of part-time students enrolled at the universities. University students do not have to attend lectures to be allowed to sit for examinations. Only practical work (laboratory-work, hospital work, participation in research projects etc.) may be compulsory. In such fields as the humanities, law, economics and social sciences, where this practical work is a minor part of the curriculum, students may manage to work and study simultaneously, more easily so because they are to a certain extent free to decide when they will sit for examinations. Whether this situation is ideal from an educational point of view and meets the needs of part-time students satisfactorily remains to be seen. But there is a growing readiness in the universities, in some cases due to a decrease in enrolments of full-time students, to develop new forms adapted to the part-time student population.

In the non-university sector part-time education is part of the system, although a minor one. Traditionally part-time education has played an important role in teacher training. In recent years this role has been reduced by the creation of new colleges for the education of secondary school teachers. Up till then these teachers were mainly educated either in the universities or in the part-time institutions. In both types of institution only competence in a certain subject was developed. The new colleges were set up to pay more attention to professional training.

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6) M.P.M. de Goede and R.A.C. Hoksbergen. Project Avond-Universiteit. I, PAW, University of Utrecht (1976).

The relative importance of the various types of education is apparent from the following figures. In 1972 83,212 students participated in full-time non-university education, 55,343 [7] students in part-time education and 36,000 [8] students in correspondence courses at post-secondary level. In addition there is an unknown number of people who take courses provided by commercial organizations and professional or work organizations; some of these commercial organizations even prepare the students for university examinations.

3. Conclusion

Let us now return to the three criteria of the working paper. It has already been said that part-time education in all its forms offers educational opportunities to people who would otherwise have problems in obtaining the education they want. But if we understand by new groups of students those who have had less opportunities in the past - older people, women and working class youth - then we must conclude that part-time educatior has not done much to increase equality.

As to the second criterion, the opportunity to work and study simultaneously, this is not apparently a new phenomenon. It seems however to be considered more as a phenomenon of unequal opportunities than as a desirable state of affairs from an educational or social point of view. This explains why, until recently, the development of part-time education was not regarded by the policy-makers as a reform objective.

There is, however, another realization of the second criterion, traditionally to be found in the non-university institutions. In many branches of higher vocational education it is usual that out of the normal 4 year course one year is spent in practical work. In some university departments also some period may be reserved for work outside the university.

Traditionally the third criterion has been realized to some extent in the Dutch system. Among their professors and readers the Dutch universities have so-called extra-ordinary professors and readers whose main occupation is outside the field of education. Part-time teachers are also appointed at non-university institutions, but on the whole there are not many of these, and an increase in their number is not regarded as a reform objective.

4. New plans for part-time education

One of the main objectives of the present government is to increase the educational opportunities for the working class. Equal educational opportunities for women and the older generations as such have no special attention. Whereas the former may achieve equality more easily by better information of parents and the women themselves, the bridging of the educational gap between the generations will demand a very elaborated educational and social economic policy.

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7) Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek. De Nederlandse jeugd en haar onderwijs 1973/1974. Staatsuitgeverij, 's-Gravenhage, 1975.

8) Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek. Statistiek van het schriftelijk onderwijs tot 1 maart 1970. Staatsuitgeverij, 's-Gravenhage, 1970.

In the long term the government aims at a radical reform of secondary education. The various types of secondary school will be replaced, after a long period of experimentation, by a comprehensive school for 12-16 year olds and a streamed upper secondary school. For the middle term an Open School will give a second chance to those who have had only primary education. The idea is that the underprivileged members of the working class can only get a second chance if they start at the lower secondary level. From this level the Open School will be built up and will include, at the end, the level of higher education. A special committee (chairman Dr. G.H. Veringa) is now developing the organization of the Open School.

Another reform committee, the Commission on the Development of Higher Education, has stressed in its reports the idea that the further systematic development of a part-time education system in higher education is greatly needed. In co-operation with the Open School Commission it is now preparing a special report. The main arguments in favour of such a part-time sector are that

(1) a combination of work and study may have educational advantages;

(2) in view of the worsening labour market prospects a lot of young people may prefer to start to work, and to participate in education when they feel the need;

(3) the development of such a sector may, under certain conditions, mean better use of available resources.

Another development has taken place in the universities which will probably also be applied in the non-university institutions of higher education. It is the objective of government policy to shorten the traditionally long (5 or 6 year) courses but to give to the universities the relatively new task of developing post experience courses for their graduates.

Although these plans are not part of a systematic development of a new system based on the principles of recurrent education, they may be a step in this direction.

A new impetus for part-time education at the basic level of higher education is the decision of the Minister of Education for the organisations which will lose their role in part-time teacher training to start new courses of a more general type in 1977. These courses, the first of which will be in Dutch, English, economics and mathematics, are meant to broaden the skills for the labour market as well as for participation in social life.

The development of a system of recurrent education in which part-time education will play an important role, is however still under study.

NOUVELLES FORMES D'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR

Quelques considérations de principe et certaines expériences réalisées dans l'enseignement technique supérieur, en République Socialiste de Roumanie

par le Professeur Mircea Petrescu [x]

Notre intervention a pour objet d'émettre quelques avis concernant le fond de la question : quelles nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur sont nécessaires et de quelle manière les formes traditionnelles peuvent-elles ou doivent-elles être modifiées ? Nous tâcherons également de présenter succinctement quelques expériences et résultats obtenus en Roumanie dans les facultés qui préparent les futurs ingénieurs.

Une première question à laquelle il faudrait répondre est la suivante: en quoi consiste la genèse des nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur ? La réponse - même partielle - aiderait, semble-t-il, à définir une typologie des nouvelles formes d'enseignement. La société moderne s'avère toujours plus intégrée, les liens qui la tissent toujours plus nombreux et plus forts. Les problèmes pratiques auxquels l'humanité est confrontée dans son évolution ascendante, deviennent toujours plus nombreux et, pourquoi ne pas l'avouer, toujours plus difficiles; la complexité accrue de ces problèmes résulte du degré d'intégration de la société elle-même. La vitesse du progrès est beaucoup plus rapide que par le passé et, par conséquent, la société doit être également capable de résoudre beaucoup plus rapidement ses problèmes d'ordre pratique. Et, chose plus importante encore, la société doit tendre à assurer la pleine égalité des hommes, leur libre accès aux bienfaits de la civilisation, de la science et de la culture.

Reprenant l'idée d'un savant roumain, d'après lequel l'école doit être un modèle de la vie réelle, il en résulte que les nouvelles formes d'enseignement doivent, d'une manière ou d'une autre, faire face avec originalité à ces exigences. De ce point de vue, l'université d'aujourd'hui et de demain doit elle-même s'intégrer organiquement - par son contenu et les formes de son activité - à la vie de la société et s'adapter sans cesse aux exigences du progrès. Il y a probablement peu d'universités de par le monde qui ne tentent de procéder de cette manière. Pourtant, malgré sa valeur scientifique, malgré son impact sur le progrès, le monde universitaire s'adapte encore difficilement aux exigences de la vie.

L'intégration de l'enseignement supérieur à la vie sociale, économique, technique, peut impliquer une jeunesse estudiantine d'un type nouveau, un corps enseignant d'une autre facture que celui qui existe. Dans cet ordre d'idées, les critères de base proposés dans le document ED-76/CONF.805/2 pour la définition d'une typologie des nouvelles formes d'enseignement paraissent acceptables.

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x Le Professeur Petrescu ayant été empêché d'assister au Colloque, le présent rapport a été présenté par le Professeur A. Danescu, lors des réunions.

En effet, par l'admission dans l'enseignement supérieur, d'étudiants se situant en dehors de la clientèle estudiantine traditionnelle (les jeunes de 18 à 24 ans), et exerçant parallèlement un métier, ainsi que par l'élargissement du corps enseignant grâce au recours à des spécialistes qui ne sont pas des professeurs de carrière, mais qui ont acquis, par contre, une vaste expérience de la vie et de la pratique professionnelle, il semble que les portes de l'enseignement s'ouvriront largement à la vie, et que des possibilités nouvelles seront créées pour une meilleure circulation des idées et des personnes et, pour une adaptation plus efficace de l'enseignement aux besoins spécifiques de temps et de lieu.

L'élargissement de l'accès à l'enseignement supérieur résulte, selon nous, du principe de l'égalité des chances que l'université de l'avenir - mais aussi celle d'aujourd'hui dans la mesure du possible - doit accorder aux membres de la société. La démocratisation croissante de l'enseignement supérieur implique, bien entendu, l'harmonisation des niveaux de préparation entre l'enseignement secondaire et l'enseignement universitaire, ainsi que l'adoption de nouvelles formes de sélection, visant à intégrer la vie universitaire à la vie dans son ensemble.

Le développement et la diversification des formes nouvelles d'enseignement supérieur de ce type auront, sans doute, des effets positifs sur l'accroissement du degré de mobilité sociale à l'intérieur de chaque nation.

Grâce à *une plus ample admission* aux études universitaires des jeunes provenant de toutes les couches de la société, s'accompagnant d'une amélioration du niveau d'instruction dans les écoles secondaires, les universités contribueront à la réalisation des idéaux d'égalité et d'équité qui animent l'humanité depuis des siècles. Le problème des formes nouvelles d'enseignement supérieur ne peut être traité sans chercher un équilibre entre une formation de nature générale et une spécialisation approfondie, équilibre qui préoccupe vivement, entre autres questions, le monde universitaire.

Le progrès de la science et de la technologie réclame, comme on le sait, un approfondissement de la spécialisation. D'autre part, l'évolution et les changements rapides de l'économie et de la vie sociale, la nécessité d'une mobilité professionnelle accrue, imposent une préparation universitaire à caractère général et multidisciplinaire.

Les nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur devraient donc répondre soit à l'exigence de spécialisation, soit à celle d'une large formation générale, ou encore, dans la mesure du possible, à ces deux exigences à la fois. Il est cependant certain que chacune de ces formes devrait être suffisamment souple pour s'adapter facilement à l'ensemble de ces exigences. Dans cet ordre d'idées, il semble qu'une caractéristique de chaque forme nouvelle d'enseignement supérieur devrait être la flexibilité et la capacité d'adaptation, exigence qui pourrait être remplie par la nature des programmes et par le mécanisme de planification et de direction du processus d'enseignement. On ajoutera, en terminant, que les nouvelles formes d'enseignement supérieur qui seront implantées à l'avenir devront nécessairement être conçues en relation avec la mobilité professionnelle et l'éducation permanente, étroitement liée au principe de la formation pluridisciplinaire.

L'apparition de nouvelles formes d'organisation de l'enseignement supérieur sera certainement influencée également par l'utilisation, à une plus large échelle, de méthodes et techniques nouvelles d'enseignement et de contrôle des

connaissances, ainsi que par l'emploi généralisé, dans le processus d'enseignement, des moyens de la technologie moderne. Dans le domaine des sciences naturelles et des sciences de l'ingénieur, on ne peut évidemment concevoir le processus d'enseignement en dehors des laboratoires, des ateliers et même des usines, quelle que soit la forme d'enseignement utilisée. Cependant, dans d'autres domaines également, une partie importante du processus d'instruction gravitera autour des calculateurs électroniques. Les calculateurs sont des équipements pour le traitement de l'information parfaitement compatibles avec le processus d'enseignement, celui-ci pouvant être conçu comme un échange interactif et un dialogue répété de messages entre une base de données et l'étudiant, par l'intermédiaire d'un terminal. Ce type d'enseignement a cessé d'être une curiosité technique.

L'accès à un calculateur sur le lieu de travail individuel ou même à domicile, grâce à une chaîne spécialisée de télévision, pourrait constituer à l'avenir une forme spécifique d'enseignement supérieur, dont l'envergure serait incomparablement plus étendue que celle des formes traditionnelles.

En concluant ces quelques considérations générales, on peut affirmer que la solution des grands problèmes qui se posent aujourd'hui aux universités du monde entier n'est pas nécessairement conditionnée par la découverte de formes entièrement nouvelles d'organisation de l'enseignement.

Sans doute, l'apparition de telles formes constitue un phénomène constant. Il semble cependant que le premier problème auquel on se trouve confronté est celui du perfectionnement et de la transformation révolutionnaire des moyens actuels d'enseignement, tout en conservant ce qu'une longue expérience a démontré comme valable et en renonçant sans hésitation à ce qui est périmé.

Le modèle le plus plausible de l'évolution dans ce domaine sera probablement constitué par la transformation et l'adaptation permanente des formes plus ou moins traditionnelles, à côté de l'apparition continuelle de nouvelles formes, s'accompagnant d'un transfert d'expérience permanent d'une sphère à l'autre.

Le perfectionnement continuel de l'enseignement supérieur, sa meilleure adaptation à la vie, son intégration organique à l'économie nationale et à l'activité sociale en général, la transformation révolutionnaire du contenu et des formes d'enseignement, tout cela représente également en République Socialiste de Roumanie une préoccupation majeure de la direction de l'Etat, des universités et de l'opinion publique. Etablissant les lignes directrices pour l'avenir de l'enseignement supérieur roumain, le Programme du Parti Communiste Roumain, adopté au XI-ème Congrès en 1974, précise que le processus de formation dans les écoles supérieures devra être organisé dans son ensemble de manière à ce que les professeurs et les étudiants participent tant à l'activité d'enseignement qu'à la recherche scientifique et à la production des biens matériels, les facultés devenant des centres actifs d'enseignement, de recherche et de production, à même d'apporter une importante contribution au développement général de la société.

Les voies par lesquelles on tentera d'atteindre cet objectif, sont variées.

Dans le domaine de la physique, de la chimie ainsi que dans le domaine de la formation des ingénieurs, les premiers pas ont été faits par le renforcement des travaux pratiques dans les laboratoires, par l'élaboration de projets visant à solutionner certains problèmes pratiques réels, par la participation plus

grande des étudiants à la recherche scientifique, ainsi que par l'organisation de certaines activités de production, soit dans les ateliers appartenant aux facultés, soit dans les usines.

Le fait que les étudiants aient accueilli avec enthousiasme et d'une manière active tous ces changements, apparaît comme très significatif puisque leur participation constitue un appui précieux au perfectionnement de l'enseignement dans son ensemble.

En résumant l'expérience positive réalisée jusqu'à présent, on peut conclure que dans les domaines mentionnés, le cadre optimum de formation des futurs spécialistes est réalisé grâce à l'intégration plus étroite de l'enseignement supérieur à la recherche scientifique et à l'activité pratique, intégration comprenant aussi bien les édifices destinés à l'enseignement (de type "traditionnel") que les édifices abritant les instituts de recherche scientifique et les unités de production industrielle. Un tel "complexe" permet une utilisation plus rationnelle de la base matérielle commune, nécessaire aux divers processus d'enseignement, de recherche,et de travail pratique à caractère industriel pour les étudiants.

Lorsqu'un tel ensemble ("plate-forme") est conçu, il s'avère indispensable que le profil de l'unité (ou des unités) industrielle situé dans ce complexe, soit bien défini: cette unité doit assurer non une production quelconque, mais une production d'une haute qualité technique représentant un composant de valeur dans le processus d'enseignement tout entier.

L'une des premières "plates-formes" intégrées de ce type a été réalisée dans le cadre de l'enseignement supérieur de physique, non loin de Bucarest. Elle comprend à présent la faculté de physique de l'Université de Bucarest, un institut de recherche dans le domaine de la physique des corps solides, ainsi qu'une usine pour la production de l'appareillage et des équipements de recherche dans le domaine de la physique générale.

Au cours des prochaines années, des "plates-formes" semblables seront réalisées notamment dans le domaine de la chimie, à l'Institut Polytechnique de Bucarest, ainsi que dans d'autres grands centres universitaires du pays. Le complexe intégré de chimie sera créé auprès de l'Institut central pour les recherches chimiques; à l'Institut Polytechnique de Bucarest, on construira bientôt,à côté des laboratoires didactiques et de recherche, une usine pour la production de certains appareils nécessaires à la recherche scientifique et certaines installations d'essai.

L'activité productive déployée par les étudiants, conformément à la conception qui vient d'être exposée, couvre à l'heure actuelle deux mois de chaque année universitaire. Elle engendre dans l'esprit des étudiants un sentiment de confiance dont ils ont besoin en tant que spécialistes chargés de diriger ou d'élaborer un projet de fabrication. Cette activité productive constitue une forme idéale d'éducation dans un esprit de respect tant pour le travail d'autrui, que pour le propre travail individuel.

Une expérience intéressante a été également réalisée dans les instituts polytechniques de la République Socialiste de Roumanie, par l'organisation de cours pour les techniciens supérieurs (actuellement appelés :"sous-ingénieurs"). Selon cette conception, celui qui termine ces cours est appelé à travailler directement dans la production, dans le cadre de l'organisation ou de la direction des ateliers. Normalement, un technicien supérieur ne travaille pas dans les

laboratoires de recherche scientifique et ne participe pas à l'élaboration de projets. L'idée de former des techniciens supérieurs provient de la nécessité de combler l'espace existant entre les ingénieurs orientés plutôt vers la recherche, la direction et le développement et, d'autre part,les techniciens, les contremaîtres et les ouvriers.

A l'heure actuelle, les cours pour les techniciens supérieurs varient entre 3 et 4 ans, tandis que les études pour l'obtention d'un diplôme d'ingénieur durent 5 ans.

En ce qui concerne les cours du soir pour les techniciens supérieurs, leur durée est de quatre ans, au rythme de quatre heures par jour. Ces cours sont organisés par les instituts polytechniques dans les entreprises industrielles elles-mêmes, à l'intention des ouvriers et techniciens qui y travaillent. Cette forme d'enseignement répond exactement au profil suggéré dans les documents de travail du Colloque.

Tout en assurant une formation technique et scientifique fondamentale, les cours de ce type, s'adressant aux techniciens supérieurs, sont principalement orientés vers les disciplines pratiques et technologiques liées à la production.

Le pourcentage des jeunes gens qui participent à ces cours est de 60%. Il convient de souligner que le reste des étudiants inscrits est constitué par des personnes travaillant dans l'industrie. Leur nombre est devenu assez important. A l'Institut Polytechnique de Bucarest, par exemple, 2000 étudiants fréquentent les cours du soir directement sur les lieux de production. Cette forme d'enseignement comprend 19 spécialités et est dispensée dans 16 entreprises industrielles.

Il semble superflu d'analyser les raisons du succès de ces cours. Bien que ces diplômés ne possèdent pas la somme de connaissances de ceux qui ont suivi les cours dits "normaux", ils se distinguent par un comportement nettement supérieur quant à leur attitude vis-à-vis des problèmes technologiques envisagés. Par ailleurs, en ce qui concerne leur participation au processus de production, une fois les études terminées, les résultats obtenus jusqu'à présent semblent prometteurs.

Toutes les filières d'apprentissage existant en République Socialiste de Roumanie relèvent d'un enseignement démocratique, largement ouvert. A l'Institut Polytechnique de Bucarest, on compte 16.000 étudiants inscrits aux cours de techniciens supérieurs et d'ingénieurs, dont 56% proviennent de la classe ouvrière et paysanne. Une telle représentation de toutes les couches de la société est à même d'assurer une grande mobilité sociale, et s'inscrit dans une vision humaniste du rôle général du système d'enseignement, ce système étant non seulement une source génératrice de cadres, mais aussi un système de leviers qui maintiennent l'équilibre social et assurent des conditions d'égalité pour tous les membres de la société.

Il est certain que l'enseignement supérieur, son contenu, son organisation, sa capacité de former un nombre toujours croissant d'étudiants, son influence sur le développement de toute la société, formeront, pour une longue période à venir, un sujet constant de réflexion, d'analyse et d'action. Ceci provient du fait que les êtres humains exigent toujours- et à juste titre- une adaptation adéquate et rapide, aux besoins qui se présentent.

L'on dit souvent que l'enseignement supérieur traverse une crise à l'échelle mondiale. Mais on peut également prétendre que si l'université traverse une crise, c'est qu'elle doit répondre dorénavant aux exigences de progrès de l'humanité.

NEW FORMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

by Dr. Hans-J. Richter

Main Topics for Discussion

1.(a) Since 1950 new forms of higher education have been introduced and developed in the GDR in various stages. The experience gained from this and the problems which have to be solved confirm the fact that the criteria for new forms of higher education, given in documents ED-76/Conf.805/1 and /2, are, in principle, suitable to define the extremely significant problem of the development of higher education. These criteria should be regarded as a whole, although one must admit that they can have different significance.

The basic problem consists of:

- enabling working people who did not enter higher education after leaving comprehensive school, to gain access to it at a later date (criterion i);
- enabling them, by means of special conditions and forms of study, to carry out their studies successfully without interrupting their occupational work (criterion ii).

Proceeding from the above criteria and in order to implement the new forms of study effectively, one next faces the problem of teachers. It may be advantageous to employ not only professional teaching staff from the universities and technical colleges but also experts whose main occupations are outside the higher education institutes (criterion iii). Although the criteria are taken as a whole, the emphasis in the GDR lies in the development of the new forms of study which allow working people access to higher education at the same time as their occupational work. The employment of specialists as teachers is, however, regarded by us as a means of implementing the new forms of study.

(b) The following are the most important categories which describe the management, organization, aims, content, methods and participants of the new forms of higher education in the GDR and make possible their statistical recording:

i) Management and organization

- legal regulations on the new forms of study and graduations
- responsibility of universities, colleges and technical colleges to decide the content and scientific standards of education and training
- curricula, syllabi, individual operational schemes
- extent, duration and form of studies
- responsibility of the management of the enterprises in which the students are employed to support their wish to study
- extent of leave of absence from occupational work
- payment of wages or salaries
- scholarships

- teachers
- branches of the universities, colleges and technical colleges within institutions, enterprises and municipalities
- consultation centres.

ii) Participants in studies

- employed persons
- working women
- employed persons with an academic degree
- research students.

iii) Aims and content of studies

- academic study (awarding of a diploma)
- study at technical college
- study for a degree "Doctor (Master) of Science"
- postgraduate study finishing with a final examination.

iv) Forms, methods and ways of study

- extramural study
- special women's classes
- "Aspirantur" (training for university lectureship)
- research study
- postgraduate study
- courses
- teaching aids (correspondence courses, study guides).

2. The new forms of higher education in the GDR have an important social function by fulfilling educational, social and economic aims. They contribute equally towards attaining the socially-required qualification of the working people within the development of socialism and towards meeting the personal needs of the individual with regard to education and training.

The development of new forms of higher education began in 1950/51. Universities, colleges and technical colleges started by organising extramural studies which allowed working people access to higher education without interrupting their occupational work. Extramural studies aimed at helping to:

- abolish educational privileges by giving the opportunity of higher education to factory and office workers, and to peasants, which had been denied to them under the capitalist system;
- meet the rapidly increasing need for university and college graduates.

The function of extramural studies to satisfy the great demand of many working people for higher education, resulting from the old social

system, has increasingly been overcome by the realization of socialism and the accompanying educational reform. Yet even under the present social conditions the need still exists for giving the opportunity of higher education to those people who, on completing comprehensive school, took up an occupation. The wide development of extramural higher education has resulted in the fact that this form of study now exists at most universities and colleges in the GDR. It covers approximately two thirds of the subjects taught at the universities and colleges and at present almost every 4th student is involved in extramural studies. Out of the 344,976 people who completed higher education between 1956 and 1974 76,908 were extramural students. Extramural studies combine long periods of self-study following a compulsory curriculum interspersed with shorter periods during which consultations, lectures, practical exercises and seminars are held. In order to carry out this study and to participate in the lectures, seminars etc., extramural students must - according to the different disciplines - be allowed leave of absence from their occupational work of between 36 and 48 working days a year, as well as up to three months leave for preparing their diploma thesis.

Special study courses for working women fulfil an important social function. In the GDR, approximately as many young women as young men enter the traditional forms of higher education, but the proportion of working women, who on account of their family duties and child care are exposed to additional stress, is considerably lower with regard to extramural studies. Since 1963, therefore, special courses for women have been developed by law. Special seminar groups are organized for such women. Their course of study is co-ordinated with their domestic duties and working conditions, and they are allowed 20 hours leave of absence from work per week on full pay.

Due to the rapidly increasing need for scientists the "Aspirantur" (training for university lectureship) was introduced in the GDR in the 1950/51 academic year. It exists primarily to train graduates for research work and leads to becoming a Doctor (Master) of Science. The "Aspirantur" is carried out in two ways:-

- the extraordinary "Aspirantur" is available to people employed outside universities and colleges. Their work is not interrupted. These "Aspirants" (scholars destined for university teaching) are exempt from work one day each week and are entitled to four weeks paid leave of absence a year in addition to their normal holidays. This extraordinary "Aspirantur" lasts four years;
- the ordinary "Aspirantur" is carried out with complete exemption from work and lasts three years. The "Aspirants" are eligible for a scholarship.

In both forms of "Aspirantur" a professor is appointed to look after the scientific work. The "Aspirantur" is carried out on the basis of an individual work plan. Since 1969 our universities have been carrying out research studies which also lead to the awarding of a doctorate (master degree). These are available to the specially gifted and efficient students, who are selected during their third academic year. They do not write a diploma thesis but are, in the course of three years, prepared for the doctorate on the basis of an individual curriculum under the supervision of a professor.

Finally, since the end of the sixties, the universities, colleges and technical colleges in the GDR have developed postgraduate studies for those graduates who are employed outside these institutions. Such postgraduate studies are mainly inclined towards specialization and integration of the sciences. While the normal training of students, by combining broad basic and specialized knowledge, gives them a high degree of versatility, postgraduate studies provide theoretically-based specialist knowledge needed for specific activities.

Postgraduate studies basically take two forms:-

- graduates of various disciplines acquire knowledge in a specialized field outside their own discipline in order to take on certain functions, such as standardization, industrial safety or patent law;
- graduates of a certain discipline extend their specialist knowledge within the framework of that discipline.

These postgraduate studies are, as a rule, carried out as extramural studies and last for one or two academic years.

The experience gained in the GDR in new forms of higher education leads to the following conclusions with regard to the relationship between these new forms and the traditional institutions of higher education:

(a) higher education - whether in new or traditional forms - is controlled by the institutions best equipped to do this. In the GDR these are the universities, colleges and technical colleges;

(b) new and traditional forms of higher education supplement one another since they cater for different groups of students. Above all the new forms enable working people to acquire higher education or to engage in further education. However, in the GDR we cannot see any reasons or signs indicating that the traditional forms (the rapid and uninterrupted training of students) might, in the foreseeable future, be supplanted or substituted by the new forms;

(c) universities, colleges and technical colleges require staff, material and financial means to enable them to carry out both the traditional and the new forms of higher education;

(d) the new forms of study also require special legal provisions which provide students with the necessary conditions in which to complete their studies.

3. In the interests of promoting new forms of higher education, additional activities by the European Centre for Higher Education in this field appear desirable. In the future these could, especially, include:

(a) documentation and information in accordance with the list of categories to be drawn up according to ED-76/Conf.805/2(1.b), p.2;

(b) the organization of case-studies (in co-operation with interested countries or institutions) on various themes related to the problems of "new forms" of higher education as mentioned in Document ED-76/Conf.805/1, p.2, Item 5, and the holding of symposia on the evaluation of such case-studies.

Such information, documentation and case-studies would also provide the interested parties with an opportunity of finding potential partners whose special experience and achievements make direct co-operation desirable.

4. Documentation

(a) Anordnung (Nr.1) zur Durchführung der Ausbildung von Frauen im Sonderstudium an den Hoch- und Fachschulen of 15 May 1970 (GBl. II Nr. 54, p. 407) in the version of Anordnung Nr.2 of 1 November 1970 (GBl.II Nr.92, p. 644)

(b) Anordnung Nr.2 zur Durchführung der Ausbildung von Frauen im Sonderstudium an den Hoch- und Fachschulen of 1 November 1970 (GBl.II Nr.92, p. 644)

(c) Anordnung über das Fern- und Abendstudium an den Hoch- und Fachschulen of 1 July 1973 (GBl.I Nr.31, p. 301)

(d) Anordnung über die Bewerbung, die Auswahl und Zulassung zum Fern- und Abendstudium an den Hoch- und Fachschulen of 1 July 1973 (GBl.I Nr.31, p. 302)

(e) Anordnung über die Freistellung von der Arbeit sowie über finanzielle Regelungen für das Fern- und Abendstudium und die Weiterbildungsmassnahmen an den Hoch- und Fachschulen of 1 July 1973 (GBl.I Nr.31, p. 305)

(f) Anordnung über das postgraduale Studium an den Hoch- und Fachschulen of 1 July 1973 (GBl.I Nr.31, p. 308)

(g) Anordnung über die wissenschaftliche Aspirantur - Aspirantenordnung of 22 September 1972 (GBl.II Nr.60, p. 648)

NEW FORMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE U.S.S.R.

by Professor V.N. Tchetverikov

The right to education, along with other socialist rights (the right to work, to rest, to free medical care), is included in the constitutional rights of Soviet citizens.

During the first years of Soviet rule a large number of different forms of education already existed, but up until this time little emphasis had been put on general or vocational schooling. Among others, reference can be made to schools designed to eliminate illiteracy, whose activities resulted in the transformation of an illiterate Russia into a literate country, and to workers' faculties which gave access to university to a large number of young people from worker and peasant backgrounds. It should be pointed out that these were unusual forms which were not traditional or academic in the true sense of the word but which were directed towards providing the working masses with access to education.

The achievements of the Soviet Union in the sphere of education are well-known. At present, in view of the needs of the scientific/technological revolution in our country, an extensive programme for the development of the education system in this direction is being drawn up. The demand for the thorough development of the personality and for the constant advancement of vocational knowledge is becoming urgent. Consequently, there are still important problems connected with the subsequent improvement of the development of forms and methods of instruction.

The purpose of all these developments, therefore, is to provide the maximum possibility for the greatest number of people to receive instruction, including higher education.

It should be noted that, due to the rapid and extensive development of science, industrial training and equipment needed for the learning process by technical means, the possibility of employing forms and methods of higher education which ensure the involvement of wide sections of the population from different regions of the Soviet Union has come into being.

However, when discussing new forms of higher education in the U.S.S.R., I should like to draw attention to the complexity of such terms as "traditional forms of education", "non-traditional forms of education", "new forms of education". These terms, in each country, in each language and at each level of development of a given educational system, have their own particular meaning.

Therefore, I shall not use these terms and shall speak of the forms of higher education which, from my point of view, comply with the terms defined in the document of the European Centre for higher education.

Correspondence and evening courses for people already gainfully employed

Correspondence and evening courses for people already gainfully employed i.e. the basic vocational activity, were developed in our country after the Great October Socialist Revolution, first as a means

of increasing the qualifications of specialists, and secondly to enable external students to prepare and pass their examinations.

Between 1929 and 1931, in view of the extensive need for specialists with higher education and for skilled workers, considerable attention was given to correspondence courses. During this period the largest institutes were created in Moscow and Leningrad. Many day-time institutes also started to run correspondence courses.

The period 1928-1938 was marked by the transition to a system of education based on academic courses and subsequent examinations in the disciplines taught. In 1935, entrance examinations, which increased the requirements for instruction by correspondence, were introduced in the higher education correspondence institutions.

The final system of education by correspondence developed in 1938. At this time the nomenclature for specializations and the network of independent schools for higher education were created; in all schools and sections of higher education by correspondence, the training system based on academic courses and examinations in all disciplines of the study programme was introduced. Supplementary paid leave of absence from work for correspondence students was also established.

Evening courses and education by correspondence still have an important position in the higher education system. The preparation of specialists who are already gainfully employed plays a significant rôle in safeguarding the people's economy by the uninterrupted employment of highly specialized people.

In our country, more than two million people are involved in evening and correspondence courses in higher education which clearly indicates the popularity of these activities and the vital importance of this form of education.

Through the existing forms of education for persons who are already gainfully employed, those people who have completed secondary education can receive higher education in two different ways: (1) through correspondence and evening courses leading to a higher education degree after a period of 5 to 6 years; (2) through a two stage system; the first consisting of a 3-year course of preparation in a specialized field and leading to a diploma from a higher education institute.

Higher Education by correspondence in the U.S.S.R. is offered in specialized correspondence institutes, in correspondence departments of traditional institutes of higher education and in branches and study-advisory posts (SAP) of institutes of higher education by correspondence, in cities and industrial centres, as well as in major enterprises and sites. The study-advisory posts are organized to serve a minimum of 200 correspondence students, and the branches, 100 students.

Those people who have completed secondary school and whose type of work is in line with the specialization selected are accepted at the institutes providing higher education through evening and correspondence courses. They must have worked for at least six months before attending such courses.

During the last few years qualitative changes have taken place in the origin of evening and correspondence students. Previously, the great majority were people who were finishing their studies in schools of general

education, whereas now it also consists of students graduating from vocational technical schools and a considerable number of students from specialized secondary education establishments.

Over the same period there has also been a great demand for a second higher education diploma, often in a related specialization.

Experimental faculties for second higher education diplomas are connected to universities. The duration of study in such faculties varies from two years (for full-time students) to four years (for students already gainfully employed).

Thus, the higher education dispensed through evening and correspondence courses in the U.S.S.R. at present involve a large number of workers who have graduated from schools of general education to institutes of higher education.

In order to develop the opportunity for evening and correspondence courses further, careful consideration must be given to the organization of studies so that it is possible for people to study during hours which are compatible with their work.

The various ways of preparing specialists who are already gainfully employed are sufficiently flexible so as to offer all workers the opportunity of increasing their level of education and vocational skills, and of satisfying their intellectual needs.

The quality of the preparation of specialists by correspondence courses is constantly improving, due to the improvement of study methods and the increasing importance of the independent work done by students, as well as trough the acceptance by higher education institutions of people sent to them by the entreprises to improve their qualifications.

A further improvement of this form of education will consist of giving the candidates who wish to take evening and correspondence courses, a larger choice of specialization which do not involve a large amount of laboratory work and do not call for the constant guidance of a teacher.

Forms of education by television

In the system of higher education through evening and correspondence courses, educational television plays an important rôle. This is a very effective way of training specialists working in every branch of the national economy, and it has led to the improvement of various forms of education. I therefore consider it important to mention this subject.

During the 1964/65 academic year, a regular television network for correspondence students (i.e. those already gainfully employed) was established, first in Leningrad, then Moscow, Kiev and various other cities. During recent years, educational television has been developed intensively. For example, during the 1973/74 academic year, broadcasts relating to programmes of higher education institutions were implemented in 23 cities in the Soviet Union.

At present, more than 100 higher education institutions are using external and internal television for educational purposes. There are over 8,000 hours per year of educational broadcasting on external television. In addition to this, more than 15,000 hours per year are being used internally by the higher education institutions.

The time allocated to educational purposes in seven Soviet republics (RSFSR, the Ukrainian SSR, the Byelorussian SSR, the Uzbek SSR, the Georgian SSR, the Kazakh SSR and the Kirghis SSR) is used for broadcasting regular lectures, and in two republics (the Lithuanian SSR and the Moldavian SSR) for the transmission of revision lectures.

The application of educational television in schools of higher education has a double significance from the point of view of permanent education.

Firstly, valuable experience is being gathered in the field of adult education with the help of television, which, after certain modifications, may be successful eventually in establishing a system of increasing skills.

Secondly, the tedious work involved in a large number of correspondence studies using educational television is facilitated by the information given in educational broadcasts, which familiarize students with this method of work. This is a prerequisite for the eventual implementation of mass education through television.

The most highly recommended form of television broadcasts for the use of higher education institutions should include educational programmes which are made at the television centres and studios of the higher education institutions, as well as external broadcasts made by national and regional television centres.

The subsequent introduction of television as an educational method in higher education institutions may take place as follows:

- by equipping higher education sections with closed circuit systems of training at different levels, from the most simple educational devices as components of a modern complex of technical instructional tools, to the fully completed systems;
- by increasing educational television programmes broadcast by higher education centres catering for a large number of students who are already gainfully employed;
- by the television centres organizing regular higher educational broadcasts addressed to a wide range of specialists concerned with the national economy, on such topics as the problems of the present organization of industry and management, economic requirements, Soviet labour laws, the latest achievements in science and techniques, modern technology etc.;
- by the organization, in higher education establishments with a television broadcasting centre, of wide networks of televised school and courses which are aimed at giving young town and agricultural workers the opportunity of preparing for entrance to higher education institutions on their own and at the required level.

The project for the creation of a closed circuit East Siberian system of education is of special interest. An experimental educational broadcast by relay lines established on the initiative of the Tumensk industrial institute, and which connects Novosibirsk, Omsk, Tuman and Tobolsk, has confirmed the possibility of creating such a system. The establishment of similar systems of educational television in such regions enables higher education institutions to coordinate the efforts and creative talents of key educational workers in solving educational problems and to contribute to the development of various scientific schools.

At present the television relay lines between Tuman and Tobolsk and between Nezhnivatovsk and Sugrut are in operation. They provide permanent high-quality technical educational broadcasts. Retransmission of educational broadcasts from the studio and auditorium of the Tuminsk industrial institute to the oil and gas producing areas makes studying easier for students living at considerable distances from the cities. The subsequent development of the network of relay lines, including transmissions to the remote regions of the Tuminsk provinces has resulted in an important increase in the number of correspondence students.

In view of the basic needs both of correspondence students involved in the regular series of lectures and of the special contingent of students involved in the construction of the Baikal-Amur main line, the Ural Polytechnic Institute is making video cassettes of the television courses which they are sending to students working in distant regions.

In the U.S.S.R., the problem of using television for the establishment of contacts between people working in the scientific research centres and students in higher education institutions is being solved successfully.

At the end of 1974, through the efforts of the Novosibirsk Electro-Technical Institute, direct television contact by relay lines was established with the Institute of Mathematics of the Siberian department of the U.S.S.R. Scientific Academy. From the studios set up in the Institute of Mathematics of the Siberian department of the U.S.S.R. Scientific Academy, lectures are broadcast to the auditoriums in the institutes of higher education. Thirty kilometres separate the students from the lecturer. At present a thematic plan of televised lectures is being drawn up, and these will be transmitted systematically through the relay lines of "Academgorodok (a city under the Siberian department of the Scientific Academy) - Novosibirsk Electro-Technical Institute". It is proposed that a lot of use will be made by the institutes of Novosibirsk and other cities of the high-powered communications directly connected with Academgorodok.

People's universities

People's universities, which constitute part of the social, political and cultural life of the country, are a public form of education and self-instruction for Soviet citizens, and are designed to improve their intellectual and cultural levels and professional skills, and to prepare them for the fulfilment of various public functions.

Alongside the existing state educational establishments, people's

universities have their own successful means of meeting the needs of the workers to acquire knowledge.

The fundamental aim of people's universities is to increase the skills of those engaged in industrial or other vocational activities within the national economy.

People's universities are established by social, state and creative organisations through widespread public initiative, and they respond to the needs and interests of the workers as well as to the cultural-economic requirements of the regions, enterprises, collective farms, state farms etc.

Depending on their type of activity and organisation, and the basis on which they are created, people's universities form part of a system of corresponding public organisations, ministries, departments and unions of creativity, which offer them advice and leadership, and help them in all their activities.

The structure of people's universities depends on specific conditions. According to the different needs, faculties (for special branches of knowledge), departments (working in conjunction with the programmes of the faculties for various types of students), branches (created in shops, enterprises, collective farms, near places of residence of participants etc.) may be created within the universities. When necessary, people's universities organize advisory services for those who wish to improve their knowledge through self-instruction.

Special councils have been created to accomplish the necessary organization of work and guidance in the educational process of the people's universities. Representatives from the teachers and students, as well as the founders of the organisation and other interested organizations, are members of these councils. The rector of the people's university heads the council and directs all the university's activities. The members of the council, the rector of the university and the deans are designated by the promoters of the organisation of the people's university.

In the people's universities, workers who are already gainfully employed, collective farmers, specialists in various branches of the national economy and culture and all individuals wishing to develop and broaden their knowledge are accepted. Admission is not restricted. Registration in the people's universities is carried out by public and state organisations.

Each candidate must give notice of his registration at a people's university. Enrolment is made by the council of the people's university. Registration in the faculties, departments, branches and study groups is made, naturally, taking into consideration the level of the participants' education and their special preparation, their requests and their needs. Anyone wishing to attend lectures and other courses given by the people's university may do so, even if they are not enrolled.

The participant is expected to show good attendance at the people's university and fulfil an established minimum of independent and practical work.

Associations of the universities, the faculties, departments and branches, elect a monitor or, in the case of large universities, several monitors, who serve the council of the people's universities by organizing all the educational work.

The people's universities work according to a study plan and programme, which are developed by the councils of the universities using models of the "thematic" study plans and programmes recommended by the Federal Society "Znanie" decorated with the Order of Lenin.

The major form of educational activity is lectures, together with the wide use of various methodological and pedagogical tools. Besides these lectures there are seminars, laboratory work, debates and informal discussions, lectures with artistic accompaniment, excursions and associations for attending and discussing plays and films, practical, theoretical and scientific conferences, question and answer sessions, meetings with scientists, teachers, statesmen, industrial inventors and representatives of the creative intelligentsia, use of films, radio, television and other modern technical means of mass communication, and independent work projects (preparation of reports, lectures, practical projects, suggestions for rationalizing work etc.). Consultations and practical educational conferences are conducted together for the consolidation of knowledge and the training of the participants. After graduation from these universities (the majority of which run two, three and four year programmes), certificates or diplomas are awarded. If, for example, a worker has completed a type of course directly connected with his work, the council of the people's university apply to the administration of the enterprise to have him promoted to the appropriate rank for which he is qualified. He receives, of course, an increase in pay. Normally, a diploma from a people's university qualifies the graduate for a social profession: legal adviser, instructor of technical work, speaker, etc.

The basis for the development of people's universities is the establishments of higher education and the scientific research institutes.

The people's universities, in conjunction with the institutes of higher education and scientific research institutes, possess the most highly qualified teachers and equipment necessary for education, solve successfully the problems of independent and educational work, and encourage, through scientific and methodological centres, the development of skills and the acquisition of knowledge in the different branches of science and technology.

At present there are approximately 34,000 people's universities in the country, in which approximately 8 million persons are enrolled.

Typical features of the people's universities, based on institutes of higher education, are their activities in the field of scientific research, rationalization and resources. The structure of these people's universities allows considerable expansion in the preparation and development of skills, and they concentrate extensive scientific effort on improving the educational level of specialists.

Permanent teacher associations in the people's universities, attached to the institutes of higher education, provide not only a valid and

harmonious system of knowledge based on the fundamental principles of sequential and permanent education, but also give unity to the educational programme with regard to faculties and branches, as well as the most rapid realization of methodological advising and a comparison of positive experiences in teaching methods.

Institutes of higher education offer good educational equipment, visual material, technical means, laboratories, study rooms, libraries and reading rooms. For this reason many educational associations in institutes of higher education have proved their value in imparting knowledge to the workers through this system of people's universities.

The experience of the City of Moscow People's University of technological progress and economic studies, functioning in conjunction with fifteen leading institutes of higher education and two scientific research institutes, deserves attention. In this people's university (founded in 1960), fifteen faculties under four departments are in operation. Deans from the corresponding institutes of higher education give guidance on the work of the university's departments. Certain faculties hold entrance examinations. Scientists, teachers at the institutes of higher education and managers of enterprises and organizations, including full and correspondence members of academies, implement the educational process. Since it was established the City of Moscow People's University has had more than 26,000 participants.

Plant-establishments for higher technical education

In our country the organization of so-called "factory institutes of higher technical education", i.e. institutes attached to enterprises and firms, leads to the following:

- the large-scale preparation of specialists in the U.S.S.R., which enables several thousand engineers annually to prepare for certain difficult aspects of production;
- the preparation of the engineer through the combined efforts of the institute of higher education and the enterprise, which gives him knowledge of production during his years of study, and thus eliminates loss of time for adaptation after his diploma;
- the combination of studies in the institute with appropriate industrial work in the enterprise, which creates a successful mixture of general theoretical engineering instruction and in-depth vocational studies and skills in comparatively limited fields;
- the planned system of our national economy, which provides both the suitable accommodation for the institution of higher education, and the required number of graduating engineers and their distribution in the various industrial fields.

Factory institutes of higher technical education prepare engineers for their work in specific enterprises, for those working in these enterprises and with the assistance of the enterprises, by the organized combination of theoretical education and industrial preparation of future specialists.

Large industrial enterprises, especially unions and firms, which possess advanced technological equipment, high-powered laboratories and

scientific research services, are good centres for the practical preparation of the future engineer. However, it should be stressed that the plant used for this purpose should not simply be a place of practical preparation but should also play an active part in the formation of the future specialist.

The organization of factory institutes of higher technical education in our country is carried out under one system but there are variations in its actual implementation. Let us look at the fundamental features of this system.

First of all, education in such an institute includes studying both with and without an interruption in work. This means that for some periods the student studies full-time at the university and at other periods works in the enterprise, at the same time studying independently and attending the institute a few time a week outside working hours. This cycle is repeated for the same period of time during each training period. The length of these periods may vary and depend on a number of factors, including the type of production of the plant. For example, the institute attached to the Moscow automobile plant uses week-by-week alternation, while the institute attached to the Leningrad metalworks plant employs a year-by-year cycle.

The alternation of periods of training with or without the interruption of work is not an end in itself, but only a way of implementing the combination of theoretical and practical preparation of students.

Since studying without an interruption in work means that the time for theoretical preparation is less than during periods of "pure study", it is necessary to distribute the educational time efficiently between the different disciplines and their sub-divisions. In order to do this, it must be noted that in spite of the fact that the period of time for education allowed by factory institutes of higher technical education has been increased to six years, the funds for this are somewhat less than those for the day-time institutes.

In view of the necessity of achieving the optimum combination of general and specialised knowledge in the study of fundamental sciences, the same amount of time is allotted for lectures as in the ordinary full-time institutes of higher education. As far as the studies in special engineering disciplines are concerned, a fewer number of hours are allocated on the condition that the amount of industrial training compensates for this.

Thus, the most important difference between the factory institutes of higher technical education and other types of schools of higher education is the fundamental combination and mutual interaction of the theoretical and industrial preparation of the student.

Therefore, it is necessary to organise carefully the industrial activity of the student and the industrial conditions for the education of the future engineer. This organisation requires the cooperation of the institute and the plant.

All students have to work in the factory, in positions which contribute

to the formation of the future engineer of a certain type. At the beginning, the students work on machine-tools, conveyors and other equipment, as workers or quality-control inspectors. In the advanced courses the students do the same work as a qualified engineer - either on the shop floor, in an office or in a laboratory. As well as this, during the six years of his education, the student must change his post up to four times so as to learn about the work of dher equipment, to study the type of activity of the junior management, and to acquire the professional skills of an engineer.

The institute, in conjunction with the plant, directs the placing of the students depending on the nature of their work. Since both the institute and the plant are involved in the education of the highly-skilled engineer, it is easy to organise the placing of the students. With regard to this, the plant takes the initiative in deciding where the students should work so that, before receiving their diploma, they have acquired the knowledge and skills required for solving specific engineering problems related to the enterprise.

The institute coordinates the programmes of work in the plant with the preparation plan of the engineer, and - what is important - uses these periods of work in the plant as certain parts of the educational programme which are not covered in lectures.

The students study these parts, while working, through special programmes which are organized by the institute and coordinated with the help of the engineering division of the plant. Usually, these programmes include such subjects as the organization of work at the place where the student is working and in the office, the placing of the machines, the general technological schedule of the production process, the manufacture of articles produced by the plant, the methods of production design, technological processes and adaptations, the economic analysis of production and the methods of production management, etc.

Together with the programme, the institute also issues manuals containing the necessary reference material and instructions to the students on how to study the programme independently. There is a teacher in charge of the students who instructs them on the material in the programme and checks their progress. Normally, an experienced engineer working in the plant is in charge of the students who are working as engineers; he helps them to acquire the necessary skills while working in the plant.

Each student undertakes an individual project dealing with the study of different parts of the engineering disciplines in production; he writes a synopsis on the theme of the project and distributes or verbally communicates his report to the other students in seminars, under the supervision of the teacher.

Laboratory work for students in the factory institutes of higher technical education is carried out both in the institute's educational laboratories and in the plant. In the plant, this work can be organized in the three ways: the use of the plant's laboratory for educational activities, the participation of the student in research depending on the amount of educational time, and the carrying out of research by the student according to the educational process. By skillfully combining all aspects

of laboratory work, the institute not only provides the necessary amount of knowledge for the student but, together with the plant, imparts important skills to the student.

The courses and projects for diplomas are organized analogously. The projects may be academic, or based on specific problems of the plant, or carried out with regard to the plan of the plant, and according to the work or educational time of the student. These projects, which are undertaken by the student for his official educational work, are of great value in the preparation of an engineer. The overwhelming majority of projects for diplomas are studied and carried out with the acceptance and assistance of the plant.

Combining education and work in industry is not easy. For this reason, some additional advantages are offered to students of factory institutes of higher technical education in the U.S.S.R.

The entire period during which the student is studying without working in the factory institute for higher technical education is included in the training programme.

Students in the factory institute of higher technical education are allowed the same amount of paid leave of absence from work, with the same pay, as any worker in a parallel post, the leave of absence always occurring in the summer, when the student is not studying.

While working at the plant, the students receive full pay, and during the periods when they are studying full-time they receive a scholarship from the plant which is 15% higher than that granted by the state.

The students belong to the plant's trade union and benefit from all the rights and privileges of the members of that union, including sick-pay, access to a rest home or sanitorium, participation in sports organisations, clubs, etc.

The enterprise or company offers substantial material assistance to the institute with which it works.

In the majority of cases, the buildings in which the factory institutes of higher technical education are housed belong to the enterprise or are sometimes even specially built by the enterprise. The enterprise supplies the institute with the necessary equipment for laboratory use, classrooms and other purposes. Sometimes the equipment is specially made by the plant for the institute.

Besides the above-mentioned direct expenditure on scholarships for the students, the plant also bears the indirect expenditure of paying the engineer and experienced worker who trains the students.

However, the administration of the factory institutes of higher technical education is not part of the enterprise, but is an independent establishment under the Ministry of Higher and Special Secondary Education, which provides control over the education and preparation of the engineer, and also finances the institute, including the teachers' salaries.

In accordance with the general rules of admission to institutes in the

Soviet Union, those wishing to receive higher education in the factory institutes of higher technical education must have a certificate of secondary education (general or special) and must pass the competitive entrance examinations. Permission from the plant is also required for admission to the factory institute of technical education.

Experience has shown that the preparation of specialists through the system of factory institutes of higher technical education provides both an in-depth engineering knowledge of general subjects and knowledge of the skills required for solving certain technical problems.

The presence of an institute enables the plant to plan the students' work in advance in the different subdivisions which require specific types of engineering, and helps the student to acquire knowledge of the special problems which he will be facing as an engineer.

The financing by the plant of the education of engineers is compensated completely by the advantages it receives from the quality of their work, even during their first years of employment.

Institutes of higher education - scientific research institutes

One can speak about this form of higher education in which not only teachers of institutes of higher education are employed but also scientists whose basic activities take place in other institutions.

The highly effective, flexible and sufficiently economical system of training of specialists in such an institution of higher education includes joint work between the establishments of higher education and the scientific research institutes with regard to the training and education of specialists.

The training of students in general scientific and engineering disciplines is conducted by the departments which are directly involved in the institute of higher education. Preparation for special disciplines and guidance in the independent scientific research work carried out by the students are undertaken by special departments created in the corresponding scientific research institutions and involve the leading scientists in these institutions. Some of the personnel from the scientific research institutions are employed as teachers in the general engineering department of the institute of higher education.

The teaching process is organised so that at the beginning the students study general scientific and engineering disciplines. Mathematics, general and theoretical physics, mechanics, philosophy and other subjects are taught in university courses; students also study two foreign languages. A lot of attention is paid to the study of the applied, practical aspects of these disciplines (by independent work, laboratory work, writing a synopsis etc.).

In advanced courses (special and research cycles) students acquire the knowledge necessary for work in different areas of research. At the same time, students are involved in scientific research work in the scientific research institutions where they carry out their work for a diploma. As a rule, the theme of the student's work is closely related to the institute's plan of scientific research work. At the end, the diploma work is presented in the form of a scientific article which is published in the leading newspapers or as a special scientific research report. The

students' practical work in the advanced courses is combined fully with the activities of the regular employees of the scientific research institutions.

The experience of such a system in some institutes of higher education has proved its value, although the organization of these educational methods has become somewhat complicated.

Practice shows that when special preparation of students is carried out in the scientific research institutions, these future specialists obtain the most up-to-date knowledge in their particular field.

The training process in the scientific research institutes plays a significant rôle in the students' education. The students in advanced courses, who become involved in the intensive collective creative work of scientists and engineers, learn in this way to work actively themselves and to acquire skills for independent research.

Conclusion

The new forms of higher education discussed in this paper have come into being during the development of the Soviet society, as a way of solving successfully the problems of the scientific-technical revolution and of keeping up with the rapid development of general education and culture in our country. The scientific teaching associations of the institutes of higher education are continuously investigating ways and means of increasing the efficiency of all systems of higher education in the U.S.S.R. The improvement of new forms of day-time, evening and correspondence education is being considered, since the continuous progress of our society depends upon solving the present-day problems of satisfying the spiritual interests of the Soviet people.

This point is made in the published project of the Communist Party for the XXth Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union entitled "Fundamental Trends of the Development of the National Economy in the U.S.S.R. from 1976 to 1980".

As a result of the great importance attached to the development of higher education and the improvement of their forms, methods and means, a Scientific Research Institute for the Problems of Higher Education was established in our country, in order to solve these problems on a scientific basis and to promote the introduction of accomplished results in the practice of schools of higher education.

This Scientific Research Institute carries out research in a wide spectrum of problems of higher education, such as the theory of training and communist education, the scientific organisation of educational processes, the economy and prognosis of the development of higher education, the use of electronic calculating techniques for education and the management of schools of higher education at all levels, and the communication and comprehensive study of experiments made in institutions of higher education abroad.

The Research Institute of Higher Education mentioned above, is also responsible for coordinating research concerning the problem of higher and special secondary education conducted in institutes of higher education in the Soviet Union. This is included in the coordinated plan of research

which is sanctioned by the Ministry of Higher and Special Secondary Education in the U.S.S.R.

In conclusion, I should like to state that the exchange of information taking place through UNESCO is very comprehensive and will certainly further the mutual advancement of the participating countries.

NEW FORMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN POLAND

by Professor Janusz Tymowski

For economic as well as practical reasons it was necessary for Poland to find new forms of higher education immediately after the liberation of the country and the establishment of the Polish People's Republic. The reconstruction of the country demanded a large number of specialists, mainly in the technological field. The social revolution, which was taking place at that time, and the need to consolidate a democratic power, meant that insufficiently qualified people, although with sincere political allegience, were being employed in the State structure. These people needed to complete their education, first of all in the fields of law and economics. Providing a full seven class elementary education for all children required faster methods for the training of teachers. It was also necessary to enable these teachers to complete their studies at a later period.

It is worth mentioning that all this had to be done in a country ruined by war and confronted with the problem of repatriation of several millions of Poles. The Party set out to rebuild the economic structure - the transformation of an agricultural country into an industrial one. This programme created an ever increasing demand for highly educated specialists in all fields. Even the most advanced school system could not provide such a large number of educated people at the required time.

1. Study system for working people

In connection with the above problems the evening school system for engineers was established as early as 1948 at the suggestion of the Polish Mechanical Engineers Association. Up until 1955 the number of these schools was eleven.

It is necessary to point out that the students at this type of school were adults with a long working life experience, often employed in managerial positions and taking their studies very seriously. Therefore the early results from this type of study were good and gave positive encouragement to its development.

Since there were many people with long professional experience who wanted to receive higher education but who did not have the formal qualifications for it (i.e. the secondary school diploma) most of these evening schools held (between 1951 and 1955) special preparatory courses. The completion of these courses enabled entrance to the school at university level. In 1955 it was found that these courses had already performed their task and the decision was taken to abandon them.

The evening school system is, however, only available to people who live in towns where there is a university level school, or to those who work in professions which concentrate a large number of employees in one place of work. This type of study is suitable for those fields which call for close contact between student and school because of laboratories, design work etc. From the student's point of view a disadvantage of the evening school system is the strict timetable of work given by the school and the limited possibilities of time flexibility. In the beginning, therefore, the evening school system was only used in the technical field. In 1953/54

evening schools for economics were also established. The number of students attending these schools was very small: 230, i.e. 2.9% of the total number of evening school students. In the following years, after certain changes in the study system, evening schools were also established for the humanities and mathematics. Students in these schools made up a small percentage of the total number of evening school students. Over 80% of evening school students were still in the technical field.

For the representatives of such diverse professions as teachers, officials, workers at the various local institutions and farmers, who want to study but where close contact with the school is not of the first importance, non-resident studies are the most suitable form of higher education. This system gives more freedom to the student and allows him to work in his own time. It demands, however, strong self-discipline and a certain amount of intellectual ability. From the school's point of view this method requires preparation of study aids and good organization of consultations.

The next step towards a more flexible system of education is the so-called external studies, in which the student obtains a study programme and bibliography from the school, plans his studies in conjunction with the school and then only returns to the school to take examinations. External students are not entitled to any financial assistance or help from the school.

The first non-resident studies were established in economics by the Minister of Higher Education and Science on 23 August 1950 at the Main School of Planning and Statistics in Warsaw. In the same year non-resident studies were also established in the Higher Pedagogical Schools and in the Law School in Warsaw, which was subsequently taken over by Warsaw University. The first candidates for non-resident law studies were, for the most part, admitted without an entrance examination, on the recommendation of a recruiting board at their place of employment. They were mainly employees of the judicial system, who had received only a three month law course. Some students had not had a full secondary education. As a result 44% of the students gave up their studies during the first year. In 1952 non-resident studies were also established in agriculture. In 1954 the system was extended to include the technical schools - beginning with mechanics, and subsequently in the other technical fields. Finally in 1955 and 1956 they included the arts and sciences.

Non-resident studies in the technical and economic university level schools proceeded with few difficulties, inspite of the sceptical attitude of some members of the teaching profession. In the universities, however, the new system met with strong opposition. This resistence was overcome and non-resident studies were established in most university faculties only on an experimental basis and where the teaching staff were convinced of the necessity and possibilities of this form of study. As from 1956 non-resident studies were established in all types of university level schools except the Medical Academy.

The reason for the resistence at the universities was the negative results from external studies introduced somewhat earlier, in 1953. It is necessary here to distinguish between the general external studies i.e. covering all studies from the secondary school diploma to the completion of university - and the second degree external studies designed for

graduates from first degree studies, who want to obtain a second degree diploma of academic level.

The general external studies established at universities, in the fields of philosophy, mathematics and geography, and in 1954 in economics, produced negative results. There were several reasons for this. The establishment of external studies, by the Minister of Higher Education, did not include an entrance examination and therefore it was not possible to select the candidates. Furthermore there were no specific programmes or books. External students did not receive any help from the school and were not allowed time off from work for the purpose of study. Therefore only very few external students - mainly those who had studied at some time in the past - could complete their studies. As a result of this, most of the external studies were changed into non-resident studies.

Second degree external studies gave much less trouble, because there was much less material to be absorbed and the students had already completed several years of study successfully. However, the same organizational problems exist as for the general external studies and positive results were obtained only in economics and humanities.

The development of studies for working people is shown in Table 1. The percentage of the various types of studies in the different fields is shown in Table 2.

Table 1

Students in Poland in different types of study

Year	Total	Studies							
		full time total	%	evening studies total	%	non-resident total	%	external total	%
1950/51	125,096	117,506	94.0	5,013	4.0	2,577	2.0	-	-
1955/56	157,465	120,142	76.2	14,411	9.2	16,139	10.3	6,772	4.4
1960/61	165,687	111,342	67.2	12,111	7.3	26,811	16.2	15,423	9.3
1965/66	251,864	152,362	60.4	28,315	11.3	58,202	23.1	12,985	5.2
1970/71	330,789	209,846	63.4	36,595	11.1	77,566	23.4	6,782	2.1
1974/75	419,961	252,326	60.1	37,388	8.9	123,476	29.4	6,771	1.6

In order to help the working students, so-called consultation centres were set up. These institutions were established so that the working student could meet the members of the teaching staff of the school and discuss any problems arising from his studies. In practice the consultation centres, set up in the large industrial areas with the help of the local authorities, became the place where most of the classes were held during the first two years of study. These centres are equipped with auditoriums, libraries and laboratories, and the classes are carried out by regular visiting teaching staff from the school. The school co-ordinates and is responsible for the work of these consultation centres. The centres are set up by the School President in places where there is a sufficient number of students and where sufficient funds are available. The first consultation centres were

Table 2

Percentage of the various types of study in the different fields

Field of study	Type of study	Academic year					
		50/51	55/56	60/61	65/66	70/71	73/74
Engineering	f	85.6	69.7	66.2	58.7	61.7	62.5
	ev	14.4	24.0	20.6	24.8	23.3	22.4
	nr	-	5.0	11.2	14.3	13.5	13.4
	ex	-	1.3	2.0	2.2	1.5	1.5
Agriculture	f	100	77.9	78.3	66.0	61.0	62.5
	ev	-	-	-	-	-	-
	nr	-	20.7	15.0	27.0	36.4	37.0
	ex	-	1.5	6.7	7.0	2.6	2.5
Economics	f	100	61.4	30.2	36.8	54.5	55.8
	ev	-	1.7	1.6	5.8	5.3	4.4
	nr	-	24.6	30.6	42.1	40.0	39.0
	ex	-	12.3	37.6	15.3	2.7	0.8
Law and administration	f			51.5	39.2	36.6	36.9
	ev			-	-	-	-
	nr			42.0	59.6	53.0	62.3
	ex			6.5	1.2	0.4	0.8
Humanities	f	100	72.2	60.0	56.5	61.5	59.0
	ev	-	-	-	5.9	4.1	2.5
	nr	-	13.5	22.5	26.8	27.5	35.0
	ex	-	14.3	17.2	10.8	6.9	3.5
Mathematics	f	100	78.5	74.0	70.0	70.5	64.5
	ev	-	-	-	4.5	7.1	4.6
	nr	-	13.8	19.9	22.7	21.6	30.2
	ex	-	7.7	7.1	2.8	0.8	0.7
Pedagogics	f					75.5	45.0
	ev					-	-
	nr					24.5	53.5
	ex					-	1.5
Medicine	Full-time studies only						

f : full-time ev : evening nr : non-resident ex : external

introduced in the mid fifties. Some of these were abolished after a certain time, since there was an insufficient number of new applicants; others developed into branch institutions or even independent schools. The development of consultation centres was accelerated by the order of the Ministry of Higher Education on 6 August 1964 with regard to the working students. This order standardized the work of these centres. In 1965/66 their number was 95 and increased to 119 by 1974/75. In order to assist the schools providing studies for working people the Ministry of Higher Education, by the act of 30 November 1964, established three leading centres for this type of study. These were centres for the fields of arts and sciences, economics and technology. Later on, centres for agriculture and pedagogics were also introduced. The purpose of these centres is to investigate the efficiency of education and to work out organizational forms and methods of teaching. The second objective is to gather, elaborate and publish the results and experiences in the specific field.

In 1965 further steps were taken to make it easier for working people to study. Classes in the consultation centres took place mostly in the afternoons and evenings or on Saturdays and Sundays, and very often involved long, tiring journeys. For this reason they were given by the younger lecturers, and therefore did not always ensure a sufficiently high academic level. In this context it was decided to make use of television, which enabled the employment of specialists whose lectures could be heard by audiences from even the smallest villages. At the end of 1965 the Polish Government signed an agreement with UNESCO ensuring help from the Organization in exchange for information on their experiences.

The lectures were preceded by a short introductory course and on 6 September 1966 the transmission of lectures for working students, under the name of TV Polytechnic School, began. These lectures were heard by 12,000 first year students. They were given five times a week. Each day's transmission consisted of two 30 minute periods with a 10 minute break, between 4.10 p.m. and 5.20 p.m. The lectures were then repeated late in the evening of the same day. Students were provided with a detailed programme of transmission and study aids. Altogether 180 lectures, on mathematics, descriptive geometry, physics and chemistry, were broadcast. The following year these studies were extended to include lectures for second year students. 180 transmissions on mathematics, physics, mechanics and electrotechnics were added. The lectures were based on a compulsory programme and for the TV transmissions they chose the most difficult parts which were suitable for visual illustration.

These lectures captured a large audience; according to the investigation data they were seen by 30 thousand people. Apart from working students they were followed by full-time students, secondary school teachers, young scientists, and some technicians and engineers who wanted to revise their knowledge. Investigations carried out by the Interschool Research Institute on the higher education system, showed the great effectiveness of these lectures, when attended systematically. At the same time these researches showed a certain weakness in the study system for working people. The full study programme was not being completed, due to the fact that the students were not sufficiently prepared for studying and were unable to absorb all the material in the expected time.

For this reason, and due to the limited transmission time at the disposal of the TV Polytechnic School, they decided to suspend temporarily the second year lectures and to introduce in their place a course revising secondary school knowledge in mathematics and physics. Thus in the period 1968/69 to 1971/72 television was broadcasting lectures for first year students in technology, and preparatory courses for candidates to university level schools. The interests of the larger TV audience necessitated the changing of these lectures to the more inconvenient time of 3.20 p.m. to 4.25 p.m., making it impossible for evening school students to attend in groups.

The efficiency of the lectures at the TV Polytechnic School and the possibilities they demonstrated, made the authorities decide to use the transmission time of the TV Polytechnic School for other educational purposes which were considered to be more important. For this reason only one shortened preparatory course now remains from the former TV Polytechnic School.

As a result of the development of the study system for working people described above, these studies now involve 30% to 50% of all students and are a very important contribution to the higher education system in Poland. The percentages of the various study forms in different fields are shown in Table 2. At the same time the average age of the working student is constantly decreasing. As already mentioned, in the first years after the introduction of the study system for working people, the largest age group were students over 35 years of age. By the end of the fifties the largest group in the non-resident study system were students between 30 and 40 years of age, representing 48.5% of the total number of non-resident students. At the present time the biggest group are between 21 and 25 years of age.

Studies for working people are a very important factor in the democratization of the higher education system, as can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3

Percentage of students in various types of study in relation to their social background

Social background	Students	
	full-time studies	studies for working people
worker	30.0 %	48.6 %
peasant	13.1	26.9
intellectual	53.2	23.0
craftsman	2.9	1.2
others	0.8	0.3

Candidates for studies for working people have to meet the following requirements:-

- a secondary school diploma or equivalent certificate of the secondary school lycee type;
- at least two years work in a State-owned institution;

- a recommendation from the place of employment;
- a positive result in the entrance examination; where there are more candidates than places, further selection is carried out.

Entrance examinations are basically the same as for full-time studies; they consist of written and oral examinations. The written examination lasts two and a half hours and covers the main subject, or subjects, due to be studied. Oral examinations are on two subjects and last 20 minutes for each. Besides this, all candidates have to take one foreign language examination. In the artistic schools the entrance examination is a practical one connected with the respective field of study. Working teachers are accepted at the university level schools without examinations, on the basis of a recommendation by the Inspector General's office.

The working students are allowed special leave from work in order to attend compulsory classes, take examinations, prepare the diploma thesis and take the final examination.

Time off for study purposes amounts to:

1. in every study year
   - for non-resident studies: 28 working days
   - for evening schools: 21 working days

   (from the second study year the student can get one more day off each year provided his average mark is over 3.6, in a 2-5 scale);
2. during the last study year the students get an additional 21 days off for preparing the diploma thesis and taking the final examination.

As well as this, if the time between the end of work and beginning of evening classes does not give the student sufficient time for a meal he is allowed to leave work early. This free time can amount to five hours a week, and in cases where the school is some distance away, can be extended.

In order to take part in compulsory classes and examinations the working student can obtain a lump sum from the institution to pay his commuting costs if the school is far from his place of work and residence. The amount of money is decided by the manager, on the basis of travel costs per year.

The period of study in this system of studies for working people is one year more than in the respective study field and level in full-time studies, i.e. they last five or six years.

Study programmes are basically the same as for the respective full-time studies, but they are adapted to the specific character of studies for working people. The text books are specially prepared and contain methods for self-examination. The compulsory classes for non-resident studies amount to between 1100 and 1700 hours. Professional subjects are often lectured on by specialists from the respective fields of the national administration.

The efficiency of studies for working people was very low in the fifties (about 50% in evening schools and 15% in the non-resident study system) but in recent years there has been a distinct improvement as is

shown in the following table.

Efficiency of studies in 1973/74 *

School type	Full-time studies	Evening studies	Non-resident studies
Engineering	84.2	77.7	73.5
Agriculture	89.7	-	77.2
Economics	87.9	87.2	78.3
Arts and Sciences	86.6	82.4	81.2

2. Alternating work and study

In 1973, as the result of an agreement between the Warsaw Polytechnic School and the Union of Motor Industry, the system of alternating work and study was established at the Warsaw Passenger Cars Factory. In this system the periods of work and study are alternated. As well as this, during the work period in the industry the students also have 10-12 hours per week of evening classes. On the basis of experience so far, the development of this type of study is planned, but at present only in engineering.

3. The use of radio and television

I have already described the use of television to help working students. TV lectures were supposed to help in the study process, enlarge the access to higher education and enable specialists working in the national economy to revise their knowledge. At present, television is mainly used at university level in order to help teachers carrying out non-resident studies to complete a full higher education. Television is also used for basic lectures in computer science for specialists working in the national economy. Participants in this course obtain the printed study aids, attend the weekly lectures on television, come for consultations and carry out exercises in the regional computing centres.

* Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology. The improvement of programmes and education methods in the study system for working people. Warsaw, November 1973.

NEW FORMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN ITALY: DO THEY EXIST?

by Professor Aldo Visalberghi

It is impossible to give a definite answer to the question of whether "new forms" of higher education exist in Italy. If we define "new forms" in terms of (1) access to higher education for people other than young, full-time students, (2) coexistence between higher education and working life and (perhaps) (3) the use of specialists as teachers who are not primarily university professors, we must admit that all three are fairly common in Italy, but not in "new forms". The Italian university system traditionally allows people, in some way and to some degree (differing greatly in the different fields of study), to get credits and to graduate even while working full-time. At the same time it allows the appointment of specialists and professional people from outside the higher education institutions to more or less permanent teaching positions. Regular attendance at courses and seminars is not required, in most cases, in order to take examinations and get credits. Most university professors will help the working student with the preparation of his Doctoral Thesis by accepting a subject connected with the student's working life. The appointment of university teachers who are not full professors can be made from professional people or people regularly employed in other private or public enterprises; recently, however, such appointments have become slightly more difficult.

Studying and graduating without attending lessons and seminars, or by attending only a small number of them, is much easier in the humanities, arts, law, economics and political sciences than in engineering, medicine or physics; however, for the majority of subjects it is not impossible. This does not mean that it is easy for working people to get university degrees: different professors have different attitudes towards students taking examinations who have not attended any courses or seminars. It is of course difficult for workers to pass as many examinations per year as are required by the formal curricula; but students can delay their university studies almost indefinitely and their credits remain valid for eight years following their last examination, whether successful or not; the fees are modest for supplementary years. Therefore, people who really wish to can graduate, even while working full-time, in exactly the same way as regular full-time students, even if their studies have necessarily taken very much longer. Nobody knows exactly how many of these students there are. Official figures tell us only that in 1974/75, for example, there were 165,321 students "fuori corso" (i.e. they enrolled after the regular period of their studies); this means approximately one fourth of the number of regular students ("in corso"), which was 675,176 during the same year. Nobody knows how many of these "fuori corso" students actually graduate or how long it takes them. Nor does anyone know how many of them are full-time or only part-time workers. Partial inquiries tell us that there are few, differing greatly in the various fields. But these are not the worst, nor the least satisfied students. A serious investigation, made in my own "faculty" (Humanities and Philosophy in the University of Rome: "faculty" in this case means large department) has revealed that out of a random representative sample of students one half were working students of some kind. Out of these, one half only had precarious jobs, a good proportion had regular full-time jobs and a small proportion had regular part-time jobs: the latter were very clearly <u>the most satisfied with their studies</u>.

This means that even in such a flexible system, lacking any ad hoc institution for working students, students who are able to organise their work and their studies by themselves can do fairly well at both, in spite of the fact that the Italian university system is mono-title, i.e. it has no structural facilities for part-time students, such as short-cycle or even sequential degrees. The system centres on the "laurea" which is a doctorate of a lower level than in most advanced countries; it corresponds more or less to a Master's Degree. The duration of study for the "laurea" is, in most cases, four years - five for engineering and chemistry, six for medicine - (N.B. the new entrants have usually left high school at 19 which is one year later than in most countries). It is also possible to obtain a type of university "diploma" after only two or three years of study, but this does not represent a very large part of the system and students enrolled in such courses form a very small proportion of the total (for example: 9,579 out of 759,872 in 1971-73, and the majority of those were studying physical education which will probably be changed into a "corso di laurea" very soon).*

In Italy, we do not have such possibilities as sandwich courses or summer courses; even evening courses are rare and are difficult to organize and finance. But it must be admitted that the present very flexible system seems to meet, to some degree, the students' needs in this respect (certain bookshops operate as a substitute for correspondence courses, sending out programmes, texts and booklets to students living some distance away).

It is necessary here to mention two main elements which tend to maintain the general standard of study at a certain level: these are the requirement of attendance at seminars, laboratories and field work when necessary, with only a limited possibility of replacing them by additional study (such a requirement varies greatly from one field of study to another, and also from university to university, institute to institute, or even from one professor to another) and, more important, the need for each student to prepare and discuss in front of the faculty (or part of it) a doctoral thesis before graduation. Therefore, even in the case where the student has gained all the necessary credits without attendance, has regularly taken and passed all the required examinations (which he can now choose with a certain amount of freedom), he must find a professor to instruct him in his individual work by personal contact (sometimes this is group work, but with individual contributions). For students living some distance away or who are working, the subject of the thesis is sometimes chosen taking this fact into consideration (for example, local history, local social studies and so on).

Such a system involves huge wastage, especially, of course, with regard to part-time students. This wastage is growing, according to the available figures: between 1946/47 and 1971/72, enrolments increased by approximately 220% (from 248,083 to 759,872) but graduation by only about 160% (from 23,215 to 60,651). Therefore this system, even if it encourages non-traditional students to enter it, is not fair to them. Italy seems fairly advanced with regard to the ratio of university students to citizens

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* With regard to the historical and socio-political reasons which have produced such a "mono-title" system, see: Aldo Visalberghi, Structure of university education for social work in Italy, in Education for Social Work, Spring 1970, pp.61-68. This article also describes the situation of social workers' schools confronted with the above-mentioned difficulties raised by "diploma" courses.

(147 out of 10,000 in 1972/73, which is among the highest in Europe), but in spite of its "flexibility" the system does not really meet the demand of people wishing to work and study at the same time. A recent inquiry revealed that almost one half of enrolled students would prefer to work and study at the same time, even if this meant delaying graduation for a very long time (44.3% of male and 47.2% of female students of a national representative sample surveyed by CENSIS in 1975). This means that, apart from the people not interviewed because they chose work instead of study, there are many students who would be ready to use new structural facilities uniting work and study, if these were available. However, these facilities do not exist yet either in the university system or in the very few institutions of non-university post-secondary education (with two or three exceptions operated by big public or private industrial enterprises)*.

In spite of this rather depressing picture regarding "new forms" of higher education, we do have some interesting innovations concerning paid leave of absence for study, which have some impact even at university level. Some twenty recent nation-wide agreements between labour unions and employers associations state the right of workers to have periods of paid leave of absence for educational purposes. The first of these, in April 1973, regarding the metal and mechanical enterprises, states that each worker may have up to 150 hours of paid leave every three years as long as he also dedicates an equal period of his free time to educational purposes. The other contracts are similar. Labour unions have the power to control the implementation of such statutes.

This "150 hours" system has, up to now, been used mostly for the completion of basic schooling. The public "middle schools" (for children from 11 to 14 years of age) can give official certificates of "Middle School Licence" (which is now compulsory) to workers who have not previously attended such a school but who have participated in special courses of 300-400 hours over a period of 6-8 months which are arranged in such a way that they can use their 150 hours paid leave.

Hardly anything has been organized at the upper secondary level, but several "seminars" have been held at some universities for workers using this new right. In this case, it is clear that no official certificates can be granted because of the very structure of our university (attempts have been made by regular students to get credits for their participation at these seminars). But basically the general aim was to enhance workers' awareness of work problems, with special regard to workers engaged in top level labour activities. Sixteen universities participated in 1974/75, mostly in the north of the country; 28 seminars were organized and 1,271 workers attended them. The average length of the seminars was 88 hours. The topics discussed were based on the following subjects:-

- socio-economic problems (7, 25%)
- medicine and labour psychology (5, 18%)
- technology and resources policy (4, 14.2%)

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* With regard to the very important problem of the status in higher education of non-university institutions, and in general about the main structural tendencies in higher education and their social implications see: Aldo Visalberghi, Changes in higher education: two possible futures; Paper delivered at the Annual Meeting of the American Council on Education (Washington D.C., 8-10 October 1975).

- labour legislation (3, 10.7%)
- work organization (3, 10.7%)
- school and labour market (2, 7.1%)
- territory and social services (2, 7.1%)
- administration of justice (1, 3.6%)
- history, workers movements (1, 3.6%).

With regard to the methods used, the general pattern has been as follows:-

- themes and problems presented by experts (not always from the university staff)
- group work on them
- the working out of a "survey project" in order to stimulate the active participation of workers even from outside the seminar.

Clearly, such experiments do not immediately change the general pattern of a higher education system which is so amorphous as to admit non-traditional students without helping them specifically in any way, and therefore discouraging them or most of them in the long run. But, paradoxically, they contain a very advanced element since the "150 hours" have been obtained together with the unification of blue and white collar workers' careers, in the perspective of a generalized promotion of labour considered as a universal right. This development necessarily implies recurrent education, even at university level. In order to move towards these targets, however, radical changes are needed, both in educational and in general policy, and in the relationship of power between political forces, as well as in a clarification of ideas within the political and social organization.

PART III : BIBLIOGRAPHY

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ТРЕТЬЯ ЧАСТЬ : БИБЛИОГРАФИЯ

PART III

BIBLIOGRAPHY ON NEW FORMS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN EUROPE [x]

PARTIE III

BIBLIOGRAPHIE SUR LES NOUVELLES FORMES D'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR EN EUROPE [x]

ТРЕТЬЯ ЧАСТЬ

БИБЛИОГРАФИЯ ОТНОСИТЕЛЬНО НОВЫХ ФОРМ ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ В ЕВРОПЕ [x]

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